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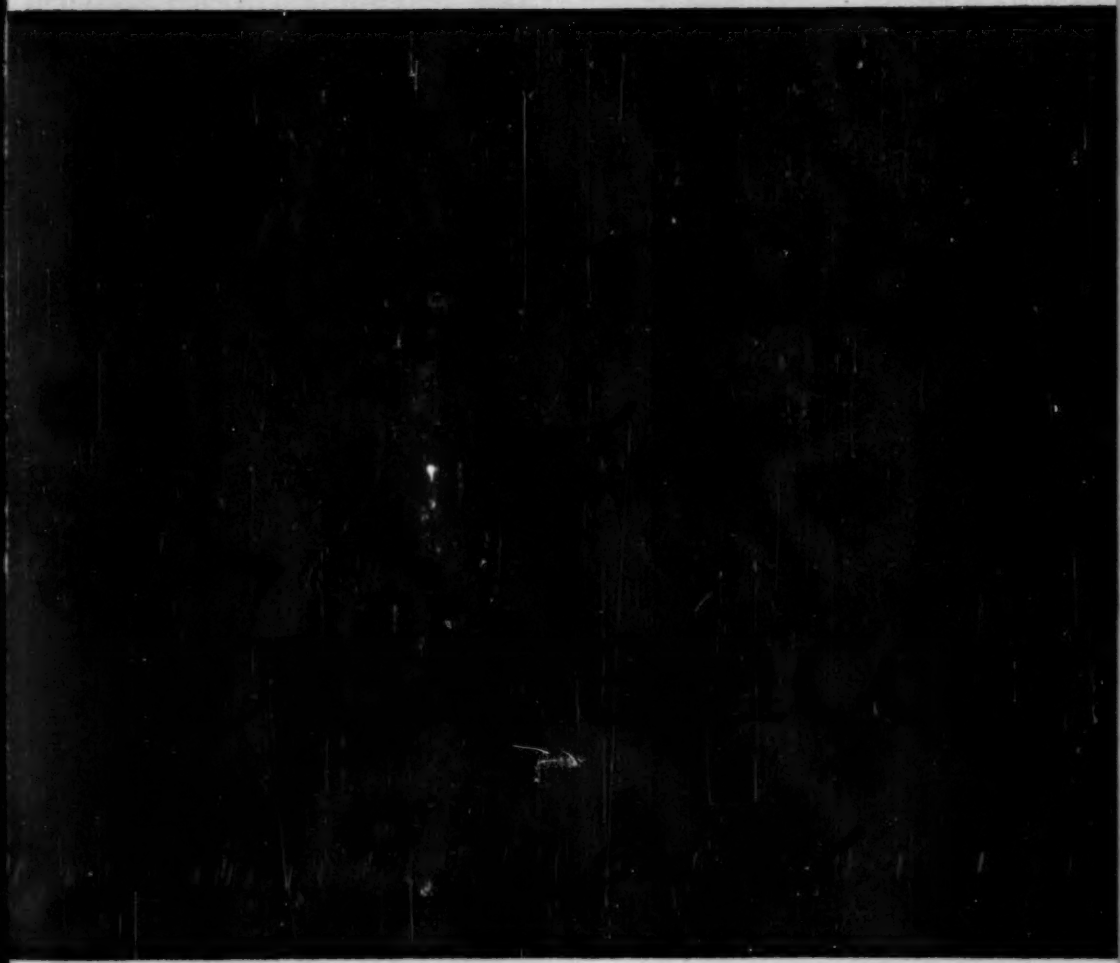

SUCCESSOR TO *Occupations*

THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL

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The

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Policy and Practice in Employing the Aging . . . 152
Charles E. Odell and Olive E. Young

The So-Called Handicapped 159
William P. McCahill

Training for Citizenship through Student Activities 162
Kate Hevner Mueller

The Differential Aptitude Tests 167
Alexander G. Wesman

Defining Vocational Counseling & Vocational Guidance 171
Peter P. Hale

Small Group Discussion 173
Helen Irene Driver

Evaluating Performance of Pupils in Selected Occupations 176
J. Wayne Wrightstone, George Forlano, and Joseph Justman

Study Techniques of Those Superior Students . . 181
David G. Danskin and Collins W. Burnett

Students Scrutinize a Guidance Program 187
Edward J. Durnall, Jr.

Discipline in College Residence Halls 189
Selby G. Clark, Daryl G. Hagie, and Wilfred M. Landrus

DEPARTMENTS

Washington Flashes 150
Association Activities 194
Branch News 194
Who's Who — and Where 196
Books Reviewed . . 202
You Might Like to Read 197
You Might Like to See 200
Publications . . . in Brief 210

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Transmitted by Max F. Baer

WE'RE GETTING OLDER

Number of oldsters: Committee on Aging and Geriatrics of Federal Security Agency has issued interesting Fact Book on Aging (available for $.30 from Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.). Since 1900, population of USA has doubled, but number of persons 45-64 years has tripled, while number 65 and older has quadrupled. There are now over 13 million persons 65 and older and number is growing at rate of about 400,000 a year. One in every twelve is now in this top age bracket. Highest ratio is in New England and West North Central States, lowest in South and Southwest.

Men and women: Although more boy babies are born than girl babies, score is more than evened by age 65 and over, when there are only 90 men for 100 women. By the time they reach 70, more than half of all women are widows, but almost three in four men are still married.

Where they live: In 1950 almost seven in ten persons 65 and over maintained own households, usually living with spouse or other relative. Less than one-fourth were not living in family setting. This group included 14 per cent with own households but no relative present, 4 per cent living as roomers or boarders with non-relatives, and 6 per cent in hotels, large rooming houses, and institutions.

Income: In 1950 Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that aged retired couples in cities need from $1,600 to $1,900 to get along. But in same year half the persons 65 and over living alone or with non-relatives had cash incomes below $650. More than three-fourths were drawing less than $1,000. In December, 1951, 40 per cent of men 65 and over were employed, 30 per cent drew old-age and survivors insurance benefits, 20 per cent were on old-age assistance, remaining 10 per cent were drawing benefits from special programs for railroad and government workers and veterans, private pension plans, and private insurance. Twenty-two per cent of women got income from employment, 20 per cent from old age and survivors insurance, 18 per cent through old age assistance, and 7 per cent from special government and private pension funds.

Employment: Proportion of men 65 and over in labor force sank

from 68 per cent in 1890 to 41 per cent in 1952, but proportion between 45 and 64 has remained about same. Labor force participation rates for women of all ages have gone up. In March, 1952, more than half of all employed persons 65 and over were wage and salary workers. Self-employed group constituted 40 per cent of total as against 16 per cent in labor force as a whole. Proportion of self-employed goes over 50 per cent among workers 75 and over.

Education: About one in every five persons 65 and over has had less than five years of schooling. About half failed to complete eight years of grade school. Only about one-fourth have had any high school education. Fewer than one in ten have had any college training.

Illnesses: On any given day, one in every seven persons 65 and over is disabled, compared with one in twenty-five in general population. Number of men with disabling orthopedic conditions rises from 6 per thousand between 45-64 to 14 per thousand between 65-74, and 21 per thousand among men 75 and over. Rate for these ages for total blindness goes up from 2 to 13 per thousand, and for total deafness from 1 to 9 per thousand. About 33 in every thousand men 75 and over are blind in one eye, 81 per thousand have non-disabling orthopedic condition, while 175 per thousand are partially deaf. Heart disease causes almost half of all deaths for those 65 and over. Other important killers are cancer, cerebral hemorrhages, and hardening of arteries. In 1950 only one out of four elderly persons had hospitalization insurance, compared with one out of two for general population.

SURVEY OF COLLEGE GRADUATES

New study: National Scientific Register has disclosed preliminary results of survey of 12,241 male college graduates of 1951. This is subsample of larger study of every fifth graduate who received bachelor's degree and every third graduate with master's degree in June, 1951, graduating classes.

College specialization: Proportion in each area of college specialization is as follows: Business administration, 17.3 per cent; science, 16.3; engineering, 14.2; education, 13.7; humanities, 13.6; social science, 13.6; medical science, 5.9; law, 4.4; all other subjects, 1.0.

Present occupational status: About 63 per cent are employed, 17 per cent are full-time students in graduate or professional schools, 18 per cent are on active military duty, 1 per cent are unemployed. Of those employed, 28 per cent are in manufacturing industries, 30 per cent in non-manufacturing industries, 26 per cent in educational services, 11 per cent in government, and 6 per cent in other types of employment. Manufacturing industries that employed most of them, in order of numerical importance, were: Transportation equipment, electrical machinery, chemicals and allied products, machinery except electrical.

POLICY AND PRACTICE
in Employing the Aging

THE PAST TWO years have seen steadily growing efforts to bring about changes in the attitudes, and even in the policy and practice, with regard to hiring and retention of older persons in employment. These efforts have started a current of public opinion which may eventually cause a reversal of past trends. This does not mean that the problem has been solved, nor even that there has been much fundamental work toward its solution. People are, however, thinking and talking and, in some cases, tentatively acting along much more constructive channels than formerly.

A series of conferences on problems of the aging has undoubtedly had much to do with the progress that has been made. Beginning with the National Conference on Aging, sponsored by the Federal Security Agency in Washington in 1950,[1] there have been a number of conferences which have had a heavy impact upon labor, management, and public and private agency attitudes and practices. Several conferences have been sponsored by committees authorized by governors of states, and there have also been a number of university-sponsored institutes. Outstanding contributions have come, also, from conferences such as the National Conference on Retirement sponsored by the National Social Welfare Assembly and the McGregor Fund in January of this year.

In two years' time, spokesmen for management at these conferences have shifted from a rather adamant stand in defense of arbitrary hiring ages and compulsory retirement to a position of uncertainty as to the validity of any criteria for hiring and retiring short of reliable judgments of the individual older worker's ability to perform the job satisfactorily. A few large corporations have begun to reflect this change in attitude through less rigid adherence to compulsory retirement ages. Furthermore, middle management and personnel technicians are now more willing to state their belief in a policy of selective hiring and selective retirement with elimination of age as a criterion. To those who seek speedy action as a solution to the problems of the older worker, these may seem small gains, but they are nevertheless significant and indicative of progress to come.

Federal Government Action

Activities other than conferences and institutes have also spurred advancement in the field of employment policy and practice. As a result of studies of the problems of older workers in five areas in 1950, the public employment service is now making a nation-wide effort to introduce basic changes in its policy and practice to give the older worker greater opportunity for job referral and a better understanding of how to achieve suitable vocational adjustment.[2] Many state employment services have developed local programs which go beyond the general suggestions of national policies and procedures for service to older workers. All states are currently conducting a follow-up to ascertain the extent and effectiveness of local implementation of policies. The Bureau of Employment Security has pre-

[1] *Man and His Years* (Raleigh, N. C.: Health Publications Institute, Inc., 1951).

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[2] Charles E. Odell, "Employment of Older Workers," *Occupations* (October, 1951), 15.

CHARLES E. ODELL
&
OLIVE E. YOUNG

pared a brochure describing the results of the employment service studies and summarizing related facts concerning older people as employees and as job seekers.[3]

The Office of Defense Mobilization has released a policy statement on the older worker which clearly defines the importance of the issue, and expresses succinctly what management, labor, and government, working together, should do to meet it. Recently, an Office of Defense Mobilization Task Force on the Handicapped has reported that much can be done to restore, retrain, and re-employ those with so-called severe disabilities.[4] The Task Force pointed out that there are about two million people in this category in the population, about half of whom are 45 years of age and over. Here is an area which requires much intensive work, but in which progress has occurred, at least in recognizing the possibility of combating the two-edged discrimination against persons who are not only aging, but who also suffer from disabilities associated, to some extent, with aging.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Women's Bureau continue their efforts to furnish information which will serve to educate and guide policy and practice in employment of older workers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has recently revised its fact book on older workers,[5] and the Women's Bureau has published and distributed a leaflet containing suggestions to employers on hiring older women.[6]

State and Local Action

Among organizations which have made the most outstanding contributions to thinking about older people is the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Problems of the Aging. Under the leadership of Senator Thomas Desmond, and with Albert Abrams as staff director, this committee has done more than any other single group in the nation to focus attention on and to point up possible answers to the problems of older people. The committee's most recent report summarizes currently the most significant developments in this field both at home and abroad.[7] The committee has stimulated other states to establish legislative and administrative bodies to deal with problems of the aging. Such pivotal states as Illinois, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Massachusetts, and California have taken such action. The committee has also stimulated action in the Congress where two bills and a resolution have been introduced, all designed to ferret out arbitrary and harmful policies and practices with relation to discrimination in employment because of age.[8]

Several private counseling agencies have undertaken demonstration projects to improve their services to older workers. Notable among these agencies are the Vocational Service Bureau of Cleveland, Ohio; the Federation Employment Service of New

[3] *Workers Are Young Longer* (U. S. Department of Labor Bureau of Employment Security [Washington, D. C.]).

[4] *Report to the Chairman, Manpower Policy Committee, Office of Defense Mobilization* (Washington, D. C.: January, 1952).

[5] *Employment and Economic Status of Older Men and Women* (U. S. Department of Labor Bulletin No. 1092 [Washington, D. C., April, 1952]).

[6] *Hiring Older Women*, U. S. Department of Labor (Leaflet 12 [Washington, D. C., 1951]).

[7] *Age Is No Barrier* (Newburgh, New York: New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Problems of the Aging, 1952).

[8] Olive E. Young, "Legislation and the Older Worker," *Employment Security Review* (May, 1952), 16.

Recent Developments

York; and the Jewish Vocational Services in Boston, Massachusetts, and in Detroit, Michigan. Studies by these agencies uniformly indicate that intensive counseling and placement services do materially improve the chances of older persons to get employment. They further indicate that when older workers have proper counseling and placement, they turn out to be as productive, reliable, and stable on the job as other workers, in the opinion of their employers.[9]

Literature on the problems of the aging is already voluminous, and steadily expanding. Recently, however, publications have tended to furnish concrete bases for action programs rather than the earlier more generalized discussion. A splendid contribution on this order was the January, 1952, issue of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.[10] Efforts such as this to report upon going projects in which older people participate cannot but increase enlightenment about them.

New Area of Guidance and Personnel Service

The slowly growing concern for the welfare of the older worker on the part of management, labor, and the public is opening a new area of service for guidance and personnel workers: pre-retirement and post-retirement counseling. A number of companies in industry have awakened to the necessity for positive programs to help older workers prepare for retirement. Some have even launched programs of continuous follow-up to assist retired employees to adjust well in their new roles in the community.

The International Gerontological Conference in St. Louis in 1951 devoted an entire day to a discussion of pre-retirement and post-retirement problems by selected representatives of 40 important corporations of the United States. During this discussion, the industry spokesmen claimed so much for pre-retirement counseling that Dr Burgess, University of Chicago sociologist, was moved to make some very provocative comments. He remarked, whimsically, that he had once regarded advertising as the great molder of public opinion, but that now, he sensed from the discussion, counselors were about to move in and take over this important function in our society.

Dr. Burgess then raised an issue of serious import to guidance and personnel workers: What role, if any, should counselors, as we understand their functions, play in this business of preparation for retirement? He pointed out that in so-called "counseling" many things might be done which would be questionable from both an ethical and a functional standpoint. For example, the "counselor" might make it his sole objective to influence the worker to retire, if it were in line with company policy to do so. Or, the "counselor" might simply furnish information on pension rights, social security, hospitalization, or other benefits, with the implication that these sources of income would amply meet the worker's needs when he retired, if that were in accordance with the company's policies. The worker would, obviously, find such information useful, but, as Dr. Burgess stated, it is questionable that the giving of such information is counseling in the sense that guidance and personnel workers use the term.

NVGA Questionnaire

In December, 1951, the Professional Training and Certification Division of the National Vocational Guidance Association made an attempt to secure information concerning the qualifications required of counselors in companies thought to provide pre-retirement counseling to their employees. The chairman of the division sent a questionnaire on the "Nature of Employee Counseling Program" to 34 companies engaged in a wide variety of enterprises in 13 states. Of these, 18 companies located in 10 states made some reply, though only 10 filled out the questionnaire. Six companies reported that they had no program or only an extremely limited program. One com-

[9] *New Evidence: Older Workers as Productive, Absent Less, and as Adaptable as Younger Workers* (New York; Federation Employment Service March, 1952).

[10] "Social Contributions by the Aging," *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

pany described its program in a letter, though its activity was not such as to accommodate using the questionnaire. One company stated that it has counseling facilities, but that these vary widely from unit to unit, and are unsuited to description as a unified program.

Company Experience Main Qualification

One company filled out the questionnaire to show that counseling is a responsibility of its line supervisors, its foremen, and also its personnel staff. This company does not have a formal retirement plan. It counsels employees whenever they need assistance with personal or occupational problems. It requires of its counselors "practical experience in specific work and psychological training."

Another company with a similar pattern of counseling responsibility in line supervisors and personnel staff, but with compulsory retirement at age 65, begins counseling five years before retirement, and repeats it annually until retirement. This company stated, "We try to train our first line supervisors to do the counseling by exposing them to a 'human relations course' and insisting that they employ, so far as possible, the democratic approach to their problems." The company has "set up hobby clubs to encourage outside activities which may lead to supplementary jobs after retirement."

A manufacturing company with a number of plants, mostly small, reported that in all but one of its plants, counseling is "an ordinary portion of the day's work for the general personnel technicians." The employee's local personnel supervisor receives notification of the normal retirement date, projected retirement income figures, and probable protection in retirement by existing benefit plans other than pension. This information forms the substance of an interview with the emplovee one year before his retirement date and again two months before that date. The extent to which the interview goes into the individual's retirement problems depends upon his raising questions or requesting help. In this company's largest plant, having employment of about 4,000, there is one full-time employee counselor, who has no special professional training, but simply long experience in plant personnel administration. This company tries to keep retirement in the conscious thinking of its employees through interesting items on new and older retirees in the employees' magazine.

Two companies providing counseling through their personnel departments, and making it a general responsibility of all personnel staff, offer this service whenever it is needed by the worker. One also provides the service after retirement as need may arise. One of these companies requires counselors to have training in psychology and also in social science. The other requires no specific professional training, but all its counseling staff are college graduates who have gone through the formal training program of the company.

Economic and Social Counseling

Two other companies which make pre-retirement counseling a general responsibility of all their personnel staff apparently confine such counseling to a discussion of social security benefits and the company pension. One of these companies gives the worker a questionnaire relating social security to the pension six months before the scheduled retirement date; and, one day before retirement, the personnel department interviews the worker to explain to him company policy. The other company has its personnel superintendent conduct interviews with employees at intervals of five, three, and one year before retirement to discuss with them their social security and pension benefits. The first company requires its counselors to have a college degree, preferably a master's degree in personnel relations, and prior work experience of no less than five years in the personnel department, preferably as an interviewer. The second company did not describe the qualifications it demands of counselors further than to indicate that its personnel superintendent conducts its pre-retirement interviews, presumably implying by this title superior competence and experience.

A publishing company retains in its personnel department an insurance expert who counsels employees on economic problems, and has its top management officials counsel executive personnel on retirement. The company provides counseling whenever the worker needs it, and in all cases five years before retirement. It requires that its counselors be college graduates "with economic and social understanding," and that they have five to ten years of work experience. The company stated that the general purpose of its counseling program is to "prepare the individual for the economic and social impact of retirement" and that it is "doing more and more on the social angle."

Group Counseling

A large public utility has a plan which provides that employees may retire at their own request at age 55 for women and 60 for men if they have 20 years or more of service. Representatives of the personnel department conduct individual pre-retirement interviews with employees at age 55 for men and 50 for women, and subsequently at annual intervals unless the employee requests an interview at other times. These interviews cover a review of the company's pension plan together with any plans the employee may be considering, including any financial, family, or personal problems which may affect his retirement. Also, in one of its departments, employing largely men who usually work until age 65, the company has arranged for group meetings of all men who will retire in the following year. In these meetings, there is free discussion of "questions involving computation of pensions, social security benefits, living requirements, health and physical conditions, hobbies, etc." For these employees, the company provides an individual interview on a more detailed basis immediately prior to retirement. The counselors who do pre-retirement interviewing are employees trained in personnel work and in company policy who have had several years of service with the company. This firm states that outstanding qualifications for pre-retirement counselors are, "the ability to listen to an individual's problem and the patience and willingness to help the individual solve problems outside company policy." The same counselors often continue to counsel employees after retirement.

One company, Esso of New Jersey, has developed a discussion group program for employees about one year before their retirement.[11] The program consists of five meetings of about one hour each in which small groups of from 10 to 15 people participate under the leadership of members of the Employee Relations staff. The meetings are held on company time, but attendance is voluntary. Group leaders present informative materials, but avoid speeches, and encourage free discussion among group members. Outlines for conducting the meetings cover the mental, physical, and social aspects of retirement, and have as their objective the stimulation of organized thinking toward suitable post-retirement activities.

Non-Directive Counseling Begins

Only two of the 18 companies which responded to the NVGA inquiry have highly developed counseling programs for all their employees operating entirely outside their personnel departments and using the non-directive counseling method. These are the Hawthorne Works of Western Electric Company[12] and the Prudential Insurance Company.[13]

The Hawthorne Works has assigned counselors directly to work groups in their work places, each counselor being assigned to a territory comprising an average of 375 workers, with men assigned to men and women to women workers. The counselors make on-the-job contacts, and conduct on-the-job and off-the-job interviews with workers. Off-the-job interviews are conducted in interviewing rooms away from

[11] *Preparation for Retirement*, a pamphlet, ESSO, 15 West 51 Street, New York City (October, 1950).

[12] W. J. Dickson, "Employee Counseling" (transcript of an address at a reconversion problems school of the Chicago Association of Commerce, May, 1946).

[13] John A. Bromer, "A New Approach to Employee Counseling" (a paper delivered to a graduate seminar in Industrial Engineering at Columbia University, March, 1950).

the work place. All interviews are at company expense, the worker being paid his average earnings for time spent in interviews. There is complete freedom of referral to counselors. A counselor may request an interview with a person, an employee may request an interview, a supervisor may refer a worker, or another employee may suggest to the counselor that a friend of his needs assistance. There is no time limit on interviews, and they may be repeated as often as necessary. They are completely non-directive and confidential, and have no purpose except to assist the employees "to integrate their feelings and interests with the company structure." The Hawthorne Works requires of its counselors at least a bachelor's degree, but no particular professional training. It gives its counselors carefully supervised on-the-job training.

The Prudential Life Insurance Company has in its personnel department an employee benefits counselor who serves exclusively those about to retire, and whose function is restricted to the financial aspects of retirement. The company has, however, completely unconnected with its personnel department, a counseling center which serves employees of all ages, as well as providing pre-retirement counseling. Employees may arrange for interviews at the counseling center at any time, during working hours, on their lunch hour, or after work. Counselors keep no official record of interviews. They may take notes so that they can better help the counselee in subsequent interviews, but these notes are available to no one but the counselor who makes them. The counselor makes information about the counselee available to no one in the company or outside it unless the counselee specifically requests that he do so. The company requires that counselors have a minimum of an M.A. in psychology or social work, and preferably some training in non-directive methods of counseling. It requires at least three years of actual experience in counseling with individuals or groups. There is no in-service-training other than regular staff conferences.

Of the reporting firms which have employee counseling programs, only two had a standard job description for the position of employee counselor. Only two firms reported that they give counselors in-service training. Seven firms reported that they have no literature on their counseling program, one publishes articles about pensioners in its employee magazine, and seven have literature in the form of brochures and other publicity items.

Challenge Offered

The information which the NVGA questionnaire elicited shows clearly that industry is feeling its way in employee counseling programs, and that only one or two companies have appreciated the need for recruiting professionally qualified guidance and personnel workers to perform this function. Here, then, is an opportunity for professional associations to assist industry in the development of meaningful content in the counseling job, as well as basic standards for the selection and training of counselors for this type of work. This suggests that NVGA and APGA might well take steps to initiate a program of assistance to industry in this field.

The first step might be the establishment of an interest group in NVGA for members concerned about the problems of older workers. The next step might be to encourage participation in such an interest group of pre-retirement counselors from industry. Next, it might be possible to define the basic elements of a pre-retirement planning and counseling program. Then, ultimately, these basic elements might be better understood, and the selection and training requirements for the work could be spelled out and implemented by industry itself. These steps have been discussed with the officers of NVGA and APGA, and an attempt will be made to undertake them during the current year.

Some progress has been made in improving employment policy and practice with regard to older workers. Much, however, remains to be done before reaching the goal established by one of the workshops at the conference sponsored by the National So-

cial Welfare Assembly and the McGregor Fund which stated: "We favor selective hiring and selective retirement based on the individual worker's ability to do the job and his personal desires with regard to retirement or continuance in employment." Guidance and personnel workers have a unique opportunity and a basic responsibility to see to it that this goal is achieved as rapidly and effectively as possible.

RESEARCH ESSENTIAL PART OF EDUCATION, PROFESSOR NOW A PRACTICING SCIENTIST

The pre-war concept of university research as basic research of little immediate practical value is out of date. Today sponsored research in universities has become an essential part of the educational system, important to industry and the government, the publication *Product Engineering* points out. Universities have provided the men and facilities to do effective research, becoming at the same time more useful in their main job of training young research workers, the magazine says. The professor has become a practicing scientist or engineer and students receive practical training. Universities have the equivalent of about 19,000 full-time people engaged in research work, plus 6,000 doing medical research. Industry employs about 165,000 research workers.

The change began around 1940 when the government started its huge program of defense research, multiplying its research expenditures almost ten times. Since government laboratories could not handle the work, industrial and university laboratories were called upon. With so much research now directed toward rearmament, both companies with moderate-sized research laboratories and those with large ones are turning to universities for help, according to the magazine. This enables them to carry on the research necessary to maintain their civilian line of goods while fulfilling their obligations in military work without an unreasonable increase in staff, the magazine says. Industry associations, groups of companies with common interests, also are turning to universities for research. This is particularly valuable for smaller firms, otherwise unable to finance such work.

the SO-CALLED *handicapped*

William P. McCahill

A HANDICAP IS described as a hindrance, impediment, or disadvantage. Millions of people today have turned and are turning their handicaps into advantages, some with greater degrees of success than others. However, with an estimated seven million so-called handicapped in the labor force, a daily increasing number of determined people are proving the hard way that ability counts, not disability. In the words of one group in New York City, the disabled are able.

Where disabilities of birth, sickness, accident, or war are surmounted, the hindrance, impediment, or disadvantage becomes less important than the remaining physical abilities when coupled with competence in certain lines of work. Thus, during the past decade America has been sold on the thesis that it's good business to hire the handicapped. Millions have proved conclusively that, on the job, they are not handicapped at all.

The magic of the transformation of a person with a physical handicap into a satisfactory worker with no job handicap has been accomplished by rehabilitation, training, counseling, and selective placement. And, not every one of the handicapped, not even every one of the severely handicapped, needed all of these steps. Some didn't need any at all.

WILLIAM P. MCCAHILL is Executive Secretary of The President's Committee on National Employ the Physically Handicapped Week.

This paper considers the so-called handicapped; people who are not handicapped at all on the job; people who are doing an equal or better day's work than their fellow workers. These people have coupled courage and initiative to their disability and hitched their future to their chosen job when provided with that all-important opportunity to prove to themselves and the world that they can get along.

Nothing Is Impossible

A few years ago, a determined doctor went from hospital to hospital, trying to prove that paraplegics could be rehabilitated for useful living and full employment. Everywhere he went he was told it was "impossible." He chose to ignore the constant repetition of this impossible word. Today, dozens of paraplegics have moved out of the back rooms of mining communities into the bright light of day. They are proving daily that nothing, literally nothing, is impossible when rehabilitation, training, counseling, and selective placement marshall their forces in the twentieth century.

Today, thanks to R. R. Sayers, dozens of hospitals are working with the United Mine Workers Welfare and Retirement Fund in one of the greatest salvage jobs in history. Today, if you are fortunate, you can relive the experiences of paraplegic miners by viewing the film, *A New Beginning*, which graphically shows how Charlie Moore threw off the handicap of 10 years in a back room

Seven Million One-Time "Rejects" Are Proving That Ability Counts, Not Disability . . .

and today works from a wheel chair alongside his co-workers. He also had the good sense to marry his nurse!

World War II is over, historically. It will never be over for hundreds of thousands who suffered major disabilities so severe in their lasting effects that the veterans are still confined to hospital beds. However, the Veterans Administration, as the appropriate agent of the people of the United States, can proudly report that 300,000 disabled veterans have completed various rehabilitation and training programs. The Veterans' Employment Service reports more than 870,000 placements of disabled veterans since 1946.

"Rejects" Eliminate Rejects

Some of these men have been working at Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, where Bill Betterly turned out 30,000 Air Force parachute packs without a reject by using the "rejects" of his community, disabled veterans ready, willing, and able to work.

Betterly's boys, dubbed "the guys nobody wanted," completed the job in record time and turned back $6,000 of unused government funds. Just to make sure that people wouldn't forget the workers at Fibrous-Glass, an Air Force Flying Squad filmed the Wilkes-Barre story.

Again, if you are fortunate, you can see this five-minute film which shows how the guys nobody wanted did a precision job and turned their individual know-how into parachute packs for the Air Force and meat on the table for their families.

At Frankford Arsenal they have been hiring the handicapped since the War of 1812. Today's handicapped at Frankford are known as "Handi-Chaps." Pasquale, that's his name, operates a production machine although totally blind. Erwin's missing right leg doesn't affect his gauge designing work. Simon's short leg poses no problem in the artillery experimental shop. Harry's missing right eye makes it easier for him to fire ammunition as a civilian gunner. He doesn't have to bother shutting the other eye! John is deaf, has been for 20 years, but he's a topflight tool die and gaugemaker. Is it any wonder that the Army and the Air Force have a special program for retaining in the regular service certain officers and men with disabilities?

Up in Alaska, the man who does the instructing in welding at Elmerdorf Air Force Base has no right hand. In Chicago a missing leg doesn't keep a successful chemical manufacturer from employing dozens of workers with physical handicaps. Prospective employers were much more interested in George Barr's missing leg than in his degree in chemistry. He decided to work for himself since nobody else would hire him. Today, he is the proud possessor of the first President's Trophy ever awarded to a handicapped person. Not to be outdone by the President, the Governor of Illinois named George Barr as Chairman of the Governor's Committee for employment of the handicapped.

Which Is Handicapped?

The artist who designed the President's Trophy has a crippled arm and hand. The woodcarver who polished the mahogany and carved it into finished beauty suffers from cerebral palsy. The craftsman who gold-tooled the lettering and made the pin seal leather case has a weak heart. The Negro veteran who hand-carved the Great Seal of the United States and engraved the trophy was crippled by a German land mine. Which of these men is handicapped on the job?

Everywhere you go are people with disabilities capably performing simple or complex jobs. Hollywood knows this. You can go to the theatre and see *Bright Victory*, a film which the Chairman of The President's Committee, Vice-Admiral Ross T. McIntire, has called "unforgettable." It is the story of the rehabilitation of the war blind. You can turn your minds back to *The Stratton Story* and remember that even in the great American game, a handicap can be conquered. You have only to remember *The Men* and tell yourself again that this weak body of ours still takes orders from the spirit. And who can forget Harold Russell in *The Best Years of Our Lives* or golfer Ben Hogan in *Follow the Sun*?

Representative Chuck Potter's Michigan

constituents don't consider that his missing legs handicap him from doing his job for them. West Virginia's citizens don't feel that Okey Patteson's two artificial limbs prevent him from being a good Governor. And, the people of America didn't consider Franklin Delano Roosevelt as handicapped. Of course, these are the dramatic examples. It remained for beautiful, talented, polio-crippled Connee Boswell to sum the whole thing up in one sentence. "After all," she said, "persons should be employed for what they CAN do, and not rejected because of what they CAN'T do."

Public Opinion Favorable

The Gallup Poll found out a few years ago, not to anybody's surprise, that 88 per cent of the people thought the so-called handicapped worker equaled or excelled the able-bodied.

Recent surveys by the Chamber of Commerce, the National Association of Manufacturers, the Atomic Energy Commission, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics all proved that the so-called handicapped were adaptable, careful, productive, capable, dependable, and steady.

In the last 10 years, the public employment service has made 2,255,000 placements of people with disabilities. Last year's placement figures totaled 270,000. In the last seven years the U. S. Civil Service Commission placed 110,000 severely disabled workers. In the first nine months of 1951 alone, the Commission placed 14,422. The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation states that 67,000 men and women were rehabilitated into employment during fiscal '51.

Past progress merely proves the need for public education, information, and promotion. In spite of the tremendous good will which the so-called handicapped have won in the hearts of the public and the minds of many employers, we should admit that we have only begun. The Government says that two million more men and women could be added to the labor force with proper rehabilitation, training, counseling, and selective placement.

As professionals in this field of helping people to help themselves, you must set your sights on this goal of an additional two million. The climate is right. The stage is set. You have only to do your job better to accomplish the desired results.

In March the NAM's John Convery reported that the Richmond Office of the Virginia Employment Service placed a larger percentage of physically handicapped applicants than non-handicapped job applicants. In Richmond, he said, "resistance to hiring the handicapped has been pretty well dissipated." In presenting an applicant to an employer, Manager A. W. Clopton explains the man-matching procedure which they employ and mentions the handicap as incidental.

There's an old ditty that goes something like this, "In your journey through life, let this be your goal; keep your eye upon the doughnut and not upon the hole."

That's why some seven million so-called handicapped men and women are working today, because rehabilitation, training, counseling, and employment experts are considering the worker as a worker and the handicap as incidental.

NATIONAL SCHOLARSHIP SERVICE AND FUND FOR NEGRO STUDENTS

Information recently received shows that the National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students has helped over 1,800 students gain admission to non-segregated colleges and to obtain over $250,000 worth of scholarships in the last five years. This agency stands ready to assist any principal or counselor in helping any qualified Negro students. Write the agency, 31 West 110th Street, New York 26, if you desire additional information.—from the October 23, 1952, *Oregon Guidance Service Letter.*

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP
through student activities

TRAINING FOR citizenship has been acclaimed universally as one of the most important tasks of the schools, both public schools and colleges. Educators reiterate that such training is necessary to the survival of democratic ideals, governmental structure, the national life. Students also set the highest possible values and prestige on their self-government organizations. On the other hand there are the recent conspicuous failures in student morale and control, in athletics, in examinations under the honor system, and in rioting.

It is axiomatic that students will participate in their own management. Democratic government requires the consent of the governed and precludes autocratic attitudes and practices in our schools as elsewhere. Learning is by doing.

Educators would agree that in teaching citizenship three kinds of learning are required: (1) democratic information, philosophy, history, knowledge, ideas; (2) democratic attitudes, convictions, values, habits of mind; (3) democratic skills, human interactions, techniques of family, community, and national living. Which of these kinds of learning are acquired through participation in student activities? Are any of them acquired *solely* by participation rather than by books and lectures? Must the participation be extra-classroom?

If participation is assumed to be necessary for the learning of, say, item (3) democratic skills, how is this conviction to be reconciled with the fact that relatively few students share in governmental activities? Although an overwhelming majority (probably 75 per cent) of students are educated on the larger campus (more than 1,000 students), it is obvious that the larger the campus the smaller the proportion of participating students. In the larger high schools and colleges, less than 25 per cent of students hold any offices or do any committee work in *any* student organization. As many as 50 per cent may not even be members of any campus group. On one campus of 8,000 girls, 62 voted for their student president and 48 for the YWCA president. Actual experience shows that even when the maximum effort is made and the issues are dramatic, far less than half the students will vote in campus-wide elections in the larger schools. On one campus of 11,000 students, three unsuccessful attempts were made to get a quorum of 200 students for the adoption of their constitution.

Perhaps "participation" means merely casual campus or classroom contact. Or perhaps it means only the rights and privileges, the freedom to refrain from voting; or a participation by proxy, a delegation of the participation to peers for whom one could vote, even if one does not exercise the privilege. Or perhaps some benefit is assumed to derive to the non-participating student merely by virtue of the concept of participation.

Is the student to acquire familiarity and understanding of the ideals of good citizenship or of the various kinds of indifference and corruption to which it is especially vulnerable? Is he to learn how people can be manipulated toward desirable goals or exploited for selfish purposes? Is he to learn how to build and evaluate programs in suitable perspective with honest appraisal of economic and historic facts or is he to accumulate experience in the hasty setting

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by KATE HEVNER MUELLER

up of inconsequential objectives with little opportunity either to assume or discharge responsibility to his constituency? Does he have a chance to observe that the individual's share of democratic government is typically the carrying forward of a very small part of a very complex structure? Or does he receive an over-emphasis on the thrill-producing qualities of elections, and on the disavowing of old policies and the formulating of new ones with no opportunity for a long time study of their practical outcomes?

Basic Assumptions

The success of the student government depends on the soundness of certain assumptions on which such a structure rests. It is assumed:

- that the majority of the students have a "good will," a desire to live up to the best in themselves and to cooperate with others in achieving desirable goals. Such good will may be guaranteed by a careful selection of students through entrance examinations or interviews and it may be further assured by planned attention to religious and spiritual life through appropriate officers and services. It may be strengthened also by the use of ceremonials, and the emphasis given by strong traditions. On the other hand with the heterogeneous and unselected student groups whose numbers run into the thousands, the general "goodwill" is latent rather than active, and needs carefully organized effort to bring it out. In fact the fostering of the necessary goodwill and favorable attitudes becomes a job for professionals, demands something more than merely "permissive" techniques, and is obviously beyond the capacity of the untrained and transient student leaders.
- It assumes that a satisfactory majority of the students are in sympathy with the objectives of the college and that they are emotionally and intellectually capable of achieving these objectives for themselves. Consider, for example, the dilemma of any of the larger state or municipal universities with a substantial number of freshmen whose learning capacity does not allow them to achieve passing success in the classroom, and with students who came for the athletic competition or the social life, as well as those who are emotionally immature or personally unstable. The campus regime which is suitable for the student of average motivation or capacity presents insurmountable difficulties to the substandard student. It is easy to see that trained counselors are needed to deal with the student who is emotionally substandard; it is not readily apparent that the presence of large numbers of students who are intellectually unable to compete creates a problem in campus honesty which is also beyond the scope of student leaders.
- An efficient student government also assumes that the factors in the outside world and beyond the control of the college are not contrary to and more powerful than the factors which are brought to bear on the students on the campus. In fact, when it is estimated that deleterious factors are becoming too strong, *e.g.*, the pressure on athletes to win games, the ultra-romantic and unrealistic ideology of the cinema, the hysteria and unrest of impending war, it would be further assumed that a counteracting movement would be initiated on the campus to restore an acceptable behavioral balance.
- The standards of today, the mores and codes of conduct, are no longer authoritative and fixed but relative and flexible, and self-determined. Since this is true, and

since this fact cannot be concealed from students, one must assume that the learning process within the student whereby he evolves appropriate standards for himself and his group, is fast enough to offset his immaturity and inexperience. There is danger when the standards of behavior are to be evolved from the group out of its own traditions and needs, that youth's lack of perspective will make standards unacceptable. On the campus the transition period from authority to self-determination is an unending one. The campus student is always in a stage of becoming; when he finally grows out of this transition stage, he is no longer on the campus, and the immediate help which he could have given his group must be given by those who do stay, faculty and staff.

Thus the responsibility of the administrative and personnel officers becomes more clear. Policies of selection of both students and faculty, chapel or church services, courses in ethics and religion, traditions and ceremonies inculcate and emphasize such values as tolerance and integrity. Without such agencies, and in unselected student and faculty groups, it will be all the more necessary to supplement and reinforce the efforts of students in the governing process.

Change Aspects of Government

If campus government were viewed *purely* as a teaching-and-learning process, certain of its aspects would be greatly changed. In the first place it immediately emerges as a very specialized field, both for the department "instructors" or "professors" and the "student majors." Each of the three different kinds of citizenship learning—information, convictions, skills—would be taught by different methods in proper sequence and with qualifying examinations. Some of the materials would be required for all entering students. For example, all students, in order that they may understand their duties and responsibilities toward their elected officers, toward their college, and toward themselves as a group, would need to know such things as the pattern of governmental structure on the campus, interrelations of faculty, students, officers, and committees, the special characteristics of campus groups in contrast to outside adult groups, public relations problems, individual differences, social pressures, the history, rules and regulations, and objectives of the college, parliamentary procedures, etc. Failure in this elementary course would disqualify freshmen to continue on the campus to the same extent that failures or low grades in other courses would discourage or disqualify them. Proficiency examinations could likewise take care of students who can qualify in these materials without taking the formal course.

Student officers or "majors" in the field would need intermediate and advanced courses including especially the understanding of individual and group action, and skills in group dynamics. They would qualify for minor or major offices through "civil service" examinations. Thus the continuity of problems, accomplishments, and responsibilities would be assured and the greatest weakness of student government, the ignorance and naïveté of the students and of their constituents would be eliminated. Properly qualified officers would be immeasurably more effective than the usual liberal and well-meaning but unprepared students. Administrative officers, usually more conservative, count on this lack of continuity and naïveté in dodging difficult issues. Both sides lose the benefit which might otherwise have been obtained.

The systematic study, the trained student officers practicing standard techniques, the supervision by qualified professors, would mean academic credit in government as for any other laboratory or field work. The student practitioners would have the necessary time for their duties as well as access to expert guidance and evaluation of their work. Haphazard planning, inefficiency, and irresponsibility would be at a minimum, and the learning experience not only of the "majors" but of all students would be immeasurably improved. Every individual student would have the opportunity to observe the working of a sound and efficient democratic process.

The confusion and tension central to the

problem of authority versus self-determination would be eased and clarified by this approach to student government. The usual criticism that students want power without responsibility would be obviated when the power is vested in officers who have been trained to their responsibilities. Likewise the spirit and the techniques of self-determination would be directed and applied at appropriate times and places. Simple matters of fact and information need not be learned through the laborious and time-consuming techniques of "buzz sessions;" meetings need not always be turned into demonstrations of "group dynamics." Students complain about their house council meetings as poorly conducted, inefficient, wasteful, undignified, and above all as uninteresting. They would prefer that routine business be streamlined and the pros and cons of significant problems be presented in orderly fashion by prepared individuals or committees. Courtesy and consideration is not accomplished by giving the unprepared and inarticulate student an opportunity of which he is not able or willing to take proper advantage. Present-day democracy demands that the average citizen get some help from his leaders in understanding his problems and expressing himself on them. The important thing is not always to secure a spontaneous expression from each citizen but rather to provide leaders who will study and understand his needs, organize the forces necessary to accomplish the best possible compromise, serve him intelligently and honestly, and raise the general morale. The average and especially the subaverage citizen needs not so much to acquire the information and perspective to make the wise decision on every detail, but rather to recognize the good leader when he sees one, and to be safeguarded against bad and inefficient leaders by a civil service program, and by forum and referendum privileges. There is a place for both authority and autonomy, with something of value to be gained from both the discipline and the freedom.

At present there is a striking difference between the student-teacher relationship and the student officer-administrative counselor relationship. In the former the student seeks information and help, expects to be held to high standards of accomplishment, and to have his work evaluated. The capable and conscientious teacher treats the student with all the respect due a young adult, is courteous and helpful and alert to the individual excellencies and inadequacies of each student. The student accepts equally the teacher's solicitude, ability, and authority. The teacher does not permit the student to make mistakes, nor would the student take it kindly if the teacher allowed him to continue in error.

In the latter, the student-officer insists on autonomy and self-determination, and the counselor likewise insists on these, and even more strongly than the student. Both counselor and student refuse to accept the concept of authority. Both evade or apologize for the issue, and in refusing to face and define authority, *both also refuse the responsibility.* It has all too often been pointed out that the student claims judicial powers, and the right to make the regulations, but refuses to assume responsibility for such a problem as cheating in examinations, to take one of the evils which is obviously rampant on any large campus.

But it is equally true that the administrative or personnel officer also disavows the responsibility. He also has no effective program against cheating in examinations. In his particular teaching area, he has not taken the precautions against the undesirable learning which results from practice in doing the wrong thing. From his failure, both the student officer who is confirmed in his wrong or inadequate leadership and the passive observer who watches the unfolding of the wrong patterns of individual and group behavior, are being cheated of the possibility of learning democracy.

Only Total Program New

Except as a total program there is nothing new or unfamiliar in these suggestions. With the smaller or more highly selected student groups, the government is successful because the underlying assumptions are sound. Student capabilities are guaranteed by selection, and values and attitudes are in-

sured by many different agencies. One may find a proud, efficient, very democratic student government on a campus where the administration adamantly designates certain powers as its own.

Or one may find apathy, indifference, and corruption going hand in hand with a most generous and sympathetic administration. The exact amount of authority designated to students and to staff should be determined by a formula which includes such factors as admission practices, average and range of student intelligence and attitude, number and strength of morale building agencies, size of student body, and the proportion of available specialists who can "teach" the government process.

The reasons why such a formula is not used and student activities are not promoted as a teaching-learning process in spite of the exaggerated claims of their importance in training for citizenship, are not difficult to find. It is perhaps a mark of unsophistication to expect major action or attention to a problem of such relatively minor importance in the total ongoing functions of the university, i.e., the advancement of learning, the training for the professions, credits and curricula, the continuing financial structure, adequate housing, public relations, and the like.

Good morale among the students will be maintained by the social prestige attached to any campus population. Student government, good or bad, is a phenomenon which reflects the social milieu in general. Legally the student is a minor, can make no contracts, is financially dependent and emotionally and intellectually immature. The world accepts him as such, and the problems in which he involves himself will have little significance beyond his own circle. College administrators rest on this assurance, interpret the minor upheavals as evidence of student vitality, and save their budgets and energy for projects they think more essential to their institutional life. Only where character training has been set forth as one of the major objectives, as in the case of certain private or church related schools, will student government move into the category of important problems and receive the attention necessary to its success.

THE ESSENCE OF CIVILIZATION

The essence of civilization is found in its values—in its preferences, its moral commitments, its aesthetic judgments, its deepest loyalties, its conception of the good life, its standards of excellence, its measures of success, its teachings regarding the things for which and by which men should live, and, if need be, die. The issue at stake in the coming years is nothing less than the birth, the death, and the survival of values.—George S. Counts in *Education and American Civilization.*

The DIFFERENTIAL APTITUDE Tests

ALEXANDER G. WESMAN

IN 1947, THE Differential Aptitude Tests were launched in the hope that they might make a significant contribution to the armory of the guidance profession. Now, approximately five years and 4,000 validity coefficients later, it may be well to summarize the experience with these tests. The test scores have been correlated with all kinds of grades in school systems throughout the country; they have been correlated with achievement test scores, interest inventory results, and conventional intelligence tests. Students who took the tests have been retested after three years, have been followed through three-and-a-half subsequent years of high school and have been followed into post-high school educational and vocational careers. What has been learned from this extensive use and research?

In the first place, one may generalize that course grades are usually best predicted by those tests which an experienced counselor would expect to be the best predictors. Thus, the Sentences and Verbal tests are the best predictors of grades in English, the Numerical test is most effective in predicting mathematics and bookkeeping grades, social studies have useful predictors in the Verbal, Sentences, and Numerical tests, and science is best predicted by those same three tests, with Abstract Reasoning also useful. Shorthand is virtually always best predicted by the Spelling test; the Space Relations test is effective for mechanical drawing and plane geometry. The Numerical Ability test has been found to predict well in somewhat unexpected courses; it provides fairly good forecasting of grades in English, social studies, mechanical drawing, languages and even typing. Since the content of the test seems unrelated to the nature of these courses, one can only surmise that the reasoning process it draws upon is an aspect of scholastic ability which is useful in many academic learnings.

Another generalization is that the course grades of girls are more predictable than those of boys. Though it may not be true of individual classes, the greater predictability of girls' grades is remarkably consistent when we inspect summaries of validity studies of the Differential Aptitude Tests. It holds for courses such as mathematics and science, which are usually associated with boys, as well as for English and social studies. Why this should be so may provoke interesting conjecture, but the research done thus far has not provided any clues; we know only that it is so.

Perhaps one of the most important demonstrations provided by the thousands of validity coefficients is that of the specificity of validity. Though lip service is often paid to this principle in textbooks, all too many test manuals still report single validity coefficients for a course or occupation as though that one coefficient really represented the validity which other users of the test might expect. How far wrong such an implication is likely to be may be illustrated from any of the summary tables in the DAT manual. For example, the manual reports 29 coefficients between English grades and DAT Verbal Reasoning for boys. The

A Five-Year Report

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highest of these validity coefficients is 0.78; the lowest is 0.19. If either of these values were the only information provided, it would be quite misleading to other users of the test. The median coefficients of 0.48 based on 29 separate studies of boys and of 0.54 based on 24 separate studies of girls, are much more dependable estimates of the probable validity of the test in new situations.

Why This Wide Range?

What brings about this wide range of validity coefficients—why is validity so specific? Several causes quickly appear as we consider the problem. The most important of these is obviously the different nature of the courses taught under the same name. We speak of twenty-nine English courses—but some of these may be concerned primarily with grammar and the mechanics of the language, while others are courses in literary appreciation or creative composition. We speak of predicting mathematics grades, but the actual courses vary from general mathematics, with stress on arithmetic computation skill and problems of interest and profit calculation to advanced algebra, solid geometry and trigonometry calling for high level appreciation of abstract mathematical symbolism. Science courses may mean descriptive facts in biology, the balancing of equations in chemistry or the complex interrelations of forces in physics. To expect any test to predict in the same way the performance of students in courses which make such different demands on the abilities of students is unreasonable.

Another reason for variability of the validity coefficients is the variability of the students being studied. In some schools, all students in a given grade are exposed to the same course. In other schools, students are sectioned according to previous performance in earlier courses, performance on aptitude or similar tests, or curricular goals such as academic, commercial or industrial arts.

The very fact of sectioning serves to narrow the range of talent in a course and depress the size of the validity coefficient. Sectioning also serves to induce different course content for the different students with the effects noted above. A third effect of sectioning is to make grades less meaningful from section to section, further confounding attempts at prediction for the group as a whole. A student who is in the best section may be graded "B" for greater knowledge and ability than is possessed by an "A" student in the poorest section. The aptitude test score achieved by the former student is likely to be higher than that of the student in the poor section. When the aptitude scores, based on absolute test performance, are correlated with course grades based on achievement relative to a good group for some students and relative to a poor group for other students, validity coefficients are inevitably depressed. So it is that while sectioning may be a desirable plan of academic organization, it raises havoc with validity studies.

Sectioning is not the only cause for ambiguity in grades. The age-old tendency of teachers to reward students for promptness, neatness, cooperation and similar virtues which are only partially related to real achievement of academic knowledge and skills is well known. Equally recognized over the years has been the often inadequate reliability of school grades.

A section of the DAT manual devoted to studies of the prediction of achievement as measured by tests rather than grades provides evidence of the higher validity coefficients to be anticipated when achievement tests are the criteria. For example, in one such study where the Iowa Tests of Educational Development were administered to tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade boys and girls who had taken the DAT a year earlier, the Verbal Reasoning test predicted social studies scores to the extent of 0.70, 0.75, 0.57, 0.78, 0.79, and 0.85. Five of the six validity coefficients for Numerical Ability against Quantitative Thinking were 0.80 or higher. One seldom finds validity coefficients of this magnitude for any tests when course grades are the criteria.

D.A.T. Follow-Up

One of the most ambitious tasks undertaken with the DAT was the follow-up into

later careers of some 1,800 students who had been tested as eleventh or twelfth graders.[1] Profiles were developed for those who had successfully progressed in a number of educational curricula (engineering, liberal arts, business administration, etc.) or had been employed as salesmen, electricians, clerks, stenographers, telephone operators, or at several other occupations. Success was defined minimally for this study as being represented by the student's having spent two or more years at the course or job and having expressed the intention of continuing in the same direction. The profiles typical of students entering each of these careers provide, the author feels, highly significant information to the high school counselor. For the most part, the average profiles support the present practices of counselors. Engineering students were strong in Numerical Ability and outstanding in Mechanical Reasoning and Space Relations; of all employed female groups, stenographers were clearly best in spelling. An equally important conclusion is that within any one career group there may be found a wide range of talent. The counselor advising the individual student obviously needs all the relevant data he can obtain; he dare not be swayed only by average profiles, nor judge by test results alone. As a description of the competition the student will face, however, these average profiles can contribute much to ultimate decisions.

Using Early Test Results

Can career counseling make use of early aptitude test results, or is it necessary to wait until the student is almost ready to leave the high school? This question involves not only the reliability of tests but also the constancy of the aptitudes being measured. If the student's relative standing on the tests changes appreciably between his ninth and twelfth grades, short-term high school counseling is possible, but long-range career counseling based on the tests is not feasible. If, on the other hand, the student's performance is relatively stable, long-term planning may be undertaken with greater confidence. Considerable constancy of performance was found in a study[2] in which students who had taken the DAT in the ninth grade were retested in the twelfth grade. Despite different kinds and amounts of practice—in and outside of schools—in the abilities measured by the tests, the students maintained their relative ranks quite well (range of uncorrected r=0.58 to 0.87; median r=0.72). This fact speaks well for the stability with which the tests are measuring, and permits the counselor to think in long-range terms as well as to consider immediate goals.

One way of learning to understand the nature of a test is to correlate performance on it and other tests. DAT scores have been correlated with scores on several intelligence, aptitude and achievement tests to provide this kind of information. Perhaps the most provocative of such studies, however, was one concerned with the correlation of the DAT and the Kuder Preference Record in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades.[3] Since the results were analyzed separately for boys and girls in each of the three grades, six tables of intercorrelations were prepared. An inspection of these tables reveals only two appropriate pairings—DAT Mechanical Reasoning and Kuder Mechanical and Science Interest—which show a consistant and significant relationship, and these hold only for boys. For no other pairings—relevant as well as irrelevant—are the coefficients consistently significant. Experienced counselors may not need the reminder these data contain; to less experienced counselors, the results may well serve as a warning not to base counseling on interest scores without positive information with respect to the appropriate aptitudes and abilities of the student.

How are the Differential Aptitude Tests

[1] G. K. Bennett, H. G. Seashore, and A. G. Wesman, "Aptitude Testing: Does It 'Prove Out' in Counseling Practice?" *Occupations* XXX (May, 1952), 584–593.

[2] J. E. Doppelt and G. K. Bennett, "A Longitudinal Study of the Differential Aptitude Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XI (1951), 228–237.

[3] G. K. Bennett, H. G. Seashore, and A. G. Wesman, *Differential Aptitude Tests Manual*. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1947, pp. E-85, E-92–3.

used? Anyone can learn from the practices of his colleagues, and experience with DAT has been no exception to this truism. The more obvious ways have already been implied in the foregoing discussion: the tests are used by counselors for the prediction of academic success and the guidance of students into appropriate courses and careers; they provide the student with a clearer idea of his abilities and those of the competition he is likely to meet in high school, and some post-high school, careers. Several other uses are perhaps of equal interest, though less often made.

Placement officers have improved their relations with industrial personnel men by recommending students with greater likelihood of success. Combining the knowledge concerning the students' DAT performances with the other available information about the students permits the counselor to recommend better qualified students to industry, and to suggest more appropriate jobs to students about to seek employment. When the personnel man has himself become familiar with the DAT, he can specify the kind of student he is seeking with more precise descriptions.

A significant contribution to educational practice has been the utilization of the DAT in curriculum research. The traditional approach to framing a curriculum has been based on a frequently unformulated philosophy of education contemplating the needs of the abstract future citizen. Those systems which offer nothing but classical education to students whose goals do not, and often cannot, envision a college education, are adhering to this practice. A far more fruitful approach is to take into account the needs of students in the community, and to base the curriculum on those needs, and on the abilities which are the students' potential assets. To require a future garage mechanic or carpenter to take several years of Latin and French seems futile; to deprive him of the opportunity to take automotive or woodworking courses is worse than futile—it is unfair to the student and the community. Several school systems have recently come to this point of view. They have surveyed the aptitudes of their students through grade-wide administration of the DAT and are proceeding to use the results, together with information as to students' goals and job opportunities in their communities, to revise their curricula accordingly. Other school systems may well follow their enlightened example.

Another kind of student rescued in part because of DAT profiles has been one who needs bolstering in his self-regard. Students with unfortunate early educational experiences often accept the role of being retarded, and give up serious efforts to learn new materials. Typically they set goals for themselves which are beneath their potential—which represents wasted talent for student and community alike. Many such students, when shown by a sympathetic counselor a profile indicating some demonstrated strengths, are readier to re-evaluate their goals and approach education with greater confidence. A number of counselors have reported such experiences with well-justified feelings of gratification.

It will be obvious that not all of the uses which have been made of the DAT have been recited here. The tests are tools which provide counselors and students with certain kinds of information. How that information will be utilized depends on the problems of the individual students and the wisdom of the individual counselor, school administrator or psychologist. The five years of experience have demonstrated that the tests can be useful in predicting the student's progress, and can provide significant details for an inventory of the student's strengths and weaknesses in some important traits. When these facts are combined with a record of the student's previous achievement, his hopes for the future, and the other important information which the student, his family and the school can provide, ability to help the student progress toward reasonable, satisfying goals has been appreciably enhanced.

To be valuable to each other, people must differ from one another.—*Howard A. Lane.*

DEFINING

Vocational Counseling & Vocational Guidance

by *PETER P. HALE*

IN AT LEAST two definitions investigated by the writer, the meaning of vocational guidance is not made clear. These definitions speak of a *process* but appear to fall short at this point by not indicating *what successive operations* are included in vocational guidance, *per se*. For example, look at the definition adopted by the National Vocational Guidance Association, as evolved in 1937:

> Vocational guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it. It is concerned primarily with helping individuals make decisions and choices involved in planning a future and building a career—decisions and choices necessary in effecting satisfactory vocational adjustment.[1]

With the same thought in mind, look at Super's "redefinition of vocational guidance and occupational adjustment":

> Vocational guidance is the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into a reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society.[2]

Do not both definitions speak of the effect of vocational guidance without actually considering the causal factors which led to the effect? What about the reasoning which contributed to the effect: the interchanging of opinions between the counselor and the counselee? In the main, is not reference being made to one part of vocational counseling and being *called* vocational guidance?

The writer's approach in attempting to define vocational guidance is, first, to clarify the activity itself which contributes to the end result, viz., to define vocational counseling; and, second, to make concrete the predominant features into a succinct statement of what vocational guidance is.

What Is Vocational Counseling?

Vocational counseling is the scientific process of analyzing, determining, evaluating, isolating, and synthesizing applicable subjective and objective occupational factors into an integral mass best-fitted to, and within the accomplishment of, the individual. It is concerned primarily with helping an individual make a decision and a vocational choice, plan a future and build a career, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it.[3]

Vocational counseling is a scientific process because the counselor is continually adapting and applying, coordinating and systematizing, psychological, medical, sociological, and educational philosophies, principles, and practices, and progressively changing or combining usable segments of these teachings to the end that one may make a vocational choice.

. . the science dealing with human behavior especially as it relates to vocational choice

[1] "The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance," Report of the Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association, *Occupations*, XV (May, 1937), 772–778.

[2] Donald E. Super, "Vocational Adjustment: Implementing a Self-Concept," *Occupations*, XXX (November, 1951), 92. While on the subject, why not delete the two words "of work" from Super's definition. Now, in the place of "vocational guidance," substitute such words as education, psychology, sociology, religion, penal correction. It would appear that Super comes as close to a definition of the total adjustment of the whole man as one would wish to find.

[3] The writer has paraphrased a portion of the NVGA definition.

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It is not enough for the counselor to be armed with philosophies, techniques, and, subjective and objective data. Sound reasoning is the outstanding activity in counseling. At all times the counselor must be conscious that he and his counselee are subject to variabilities in behavior. His reactions to a situation are dependent upon his interpretation of that situation. The validity of reasoning would then be dependent upon the intellectual bent of the counselor. As his techniques and instruments approach still higher validity, the counselor's reasoning will become less involved.

Vocational counseling requires sound judgment. All available evidence must be used in an analysis and determination of the general factors requisite to a field of work and to a specific occupation or occupations. In effect, the counselor establishes his working concept of the requirements necessary to the successful accomplishment of the field of work and of an occupation.

Vocational counseling requires an evaluation of the measurable and the immeasurable factors. The pieces of information a counselor obtains, whether subjective or objective, are given *significant* weight as reasoned, evaluated, and determined by the counselor. Whether this weight takes the form of a numerical quantity or a *feeling of varying importance*, the counselor is forced to place a certain value or values on a certain factor or factors. He must quantify his findings. He sorts and sifts—isolates—the data eventually synthesizing the separate applicable elements into *that* particular occupational pattern for which *this* particular individual is best-fitted and best able to accomplish.

In summary, the components of vocational counseling may be stated in the form of an equation, which might well be:

Subjective and Objective Factors
—Analysis
—Determination
—Evaluation
—Isolation
—Synthesis
→ Integral Mass = Vocational Counseling

What Then is Vocational Guidance?

Vocational counseling is a relatively young process and much has to be done to improve techniques and instruments for more systematized and general truths. That this will be done has been demonstrated by the many studies which show evidence of the efficacy of vocational counseling.

Since vocational counseling is a process which involves a scientific approach and focuses on human behavior as it applies to vocational selection the writer volunteers that:

> Vocational guidance is the science dealing with human behavior, especially as it relates to vocational choice.

TEAMWORK

> No one person, teacher, parent, or other adult who teaches him, is intelligent enough to understand a child all by himself. Decisions of importance to a child must be made by a *group* of persons each seeking to promote his welfare. This group would include him, obviously.—Howard A. Lane in November, 1951, *California Journal of Elementary Education*

small GROUP discussion

HELEN IRENE DRIVER

HOW USEFUL IS small group discussion in the counseling process for high school and university students?

In an effort to find out, the author used eight discussion groups, including 70 students of whom 31 were females, 39 were males. Groups were limited to eight students in the University projects, and 10 students in the high school program. All students were volunteers who elected the activity because of their interest in group discussion, personality, and the study of human relations. The purpose of the investigation was to test the usefulness of a group discussion therapy method [*2, 4, 6*] in aiding so-called normal students to gain self understanding, understanding of others, and interpersonal skills.

The first group discussion project was organized as the Pilot Study during the University of Wisconsin Summer Session, 1950. Thirty-six graduate students elected the project as an experiment in learning in conjunction with the educational psychology course entitled "Human Abilities and Learning." The students were elementary school and high school teachers, coaches, music directors, and administrators. In four groups of eight students (and four additional students serving as observers), the subjects engaged in six free discussions concerned with personality, individual differences, and behavior causes including problem children, defense mechanisms, group prejudices, and alcoholism. In addition to the group discussions the students wrote autobiographies, self evaluations, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory [*3*], and the Make-A-Picture-Story projective test [*1, 5*]. The discussion meetings were held twice a week over a three-week period and at the end each student had a counseling interview with the researcher. In this, the researcher gave the student test interpretations, and discussed his discussion participation in terms of the student's reaction to the project, and his estimate of learning gained through the discussions, written assignments, and test interpretations. Three weeks later written evaluations were handed in by the 36 subjects. Four to 10 months later a follow-up questionnaire was used to test the retention and carry-over of learnings from the group discussion project into the daily lives of the teachers.

Results showed that all 36 subjects enjoyed the camaraderie and freedom of the discussions and believed they had gained in knowledge and appreciation of personality differences and behavior causes. The 29 teachers (83%) who returned the questionnaires gave evidence of project influence through retention and application of various types of learning in their teaching situations or personal lives.

Second Group Discussion

The second group discussion project was organized in the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin for 16 undergraduate students enrolled in the introductory education course. Eight males and eight females volunteered for the experiment as field work in conjunction with the course.

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A Guidance Program Aid

During the first semester one group of eight students carried on 17 discussion sessions and in the second semester a second group of eight followed the same procedure, including similar discussion topics, sociodramas, and written tests and assignments.

The researcher served as discussion leader and resource person for both groups. Approximately one-third of the meetings were led by the researcher, one-third by the student leaders; one-third were leaderless. Written assignments included autobiographies, self evaluations, sociograms, the MMPI and STRONG I.I. [7] and MAPS projective test. At the end of the project individual counseling interviews were held with all students. A month or two later a follow-up interview was held in order to estimate "simmering" and carry-over influences of the group experience.

Results showed, first, that all subjects enjoyed and gained satisfaction from the group activity; second, all students learned new facts, appreciation, and/or skill in interpersonal relations; third, the counseling process was facilitated through the students' ability to recognize, state, and become motivated toward problem solutions. The surfacing of self and social adjustment problems appeared to occur along with the establishment of rapport during the progress of the 17 discussion meetings.

Third Group Project

The third group project was organized among twelfth grade students in a large high school in Madison, Wisconsin. It was called the "Personology Club" and was on the same basis as other activity clubs in the school, except that membership was limited to 10 students during each school semester. The two club groups were very different in membership. The first semester group consisted of three boys and seven girls, all of whom were dissatisfied with self or social adjustments either in the school or at home. The second semester group consisted of five girls and five boys, the majority of whom considered themselves fairly well adjusted.

The two groups used similar discussion topics and sociodramas, but the reactions of the groups to the activities were very different. Group I members were emotional, uninhibited, and aggressive. Group II members were restrained, disinterested in some of the topics which had been discussed at great length in a heated fashion by Group I. There was much "talking out" of feelings and personal experiences in the first group, and very little emotion or personal reference displayed in the second group. However, no student dropped out of his club, and attendance was equally good in both groups.

Results showed that students of both groups had enjoyed and gained satisfaction from the club. All students believed they had gained in self understanding, understanding of other and/or self and social adjustments. In the follow-up interview which was held one-to-three months after the conclusions of the club meetings, all students reaffirmed the evaluation statements they had given at the end of the project and appeared to be more enthusiastic about project influences which had been in evidence during the "simmering" period. They were able to recall definite discussions and sociodramas which had made a deep impression on them, and gave examples of changed behavior attributable to project influence. Facilitation of counseling was found in the students' friendly relationship to the researcher which was reflected in their frank discussion of worries, conflicts, vocational and personal problems during both counseling interviews.

Excellent Learning Medium

The conclusions are that small-group discussion carried on in a permissive atmosphere is an excellent learning medium for personality growth of high school, college, and adult students. It provides an enjoyable and satisfying activity in which the student can air his grievances and talk out his personal feelings and viewpoints. It gives him support and reassurance in surfacing and expressing his personal problems. It facilitates rapport and counseling efficiency through the co-participation of counselor and counselee in a pleasant group activity focused on individual needs in

understanding and solving self and social problems.

Implications for high school and college guidance programs are that multiple counseling can be made an integral part of the educative process through elective courses in human relations which are based on small-group discussion coordinated with individual counseling of group members.

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NEW CENTER FOR IMPROVING GROUP PROCEDURES

Teachers College, Columbia University, has established the Center for Improving Group Procedures, to provide community agencies, public and private educational institutions and agencies, industrial and other organizations with consultation and educational services for more effective group procedures. Among the services available are: group leadership training programs, conference planning for group participation, staff relations clinics, personnel appraisal services, evaluation of supervisory practices, development of materials, training and research programs designed to meet specific needs. The Center is associated with the Guidance Department at the college, and is under the executive direction of Dr. Kenneth F. Herrold.—from the October, 1952, *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*.

Evaluating

PERFORMANCE OF PUPILS

In Selected Occupations

J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE, GEORGE FORLANO and JOSEPH JUSTMAN

IN JANUARY, 1949, the Bureau of Educational Research was asked to cooperate with the Research Division of the State Education Department of New York in a study of vocational education in New York City. To judge the efficiency of instruction in vocational education required the construction and application of various evaluation procedures. The scope and nature of the evaluation procedures may be summarized briefly as follows:

- Evaluative criteria, similar in design to those formulated by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, were applied by teams of observers to provide comprehensive appraisal of the adequacy of supplies, equipment, materials, instructional methods, curriculum, pupil guidance, and teacher personnel.
- Tests were selected when available, but for the most part were constructed to measure the objectives of both general education and trade education. The major emphasis in the construction of tests was required in the areas of trade knowledge and trade performance.

Right away it was clear that a comprehensive program of evaluation required the identification and definition of those objectives of vocational education ordinarily subsumed under the categories of (a) general education for personal and civic competence, and (b) education for occupational or vocational competence.

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The first category included objectives of general education which dealt with those aspects of personal and civic competence expected of all citizens in our society. Briefly, these general educational objectives were:

- Competence in the basic skills of reading, written expression, mathematics, and general science;
- Knowledge of the American heritage through an understanding of the major social, economic, political, and cultural events which have contributed to the American way of life;
- Knowledge of economic processes and relationships through an understanding of the major concepts involved in the production, distribution, and consumption of goods; as well as management-labor trends and relationships;
- Knowledge of current affairs, both foreign and domestic, in political, social, economic, and cultural life of the present day;
- Desirable civic beliefs and attitudes toward American ideals, institutions, and practices in civic, national, social, and economic areas.

The second category of objectives were more specific to occupational or trade education. The objectives were identified for the trade courses and curricula, as formulated for New York City, and included the following:

- Trade knowledge required in a particular industry, involving mastery of information about the proper use of common materials and tools used in the shop; knowledge concerning routines, practices, and

techniques used in the industry; and safety measures. In commercial education, this entailed mastery of knowledge generally subsumed under the heading of business information.

- Trade performance as revealed by mastery of those knowledges and skills involved in actually executing satisfactorily a series of job samples for a trade. These trade performance tests will be discussed in more detail in subsequent sections of this paper.
- Related drawing which was defined as the ability to read blueprints and drawings related to a particular industry. In the field of trade dressmaking, mastery in this area took the form of the ability to draw a fashion figure and to design a dress on a figure. In the electrical trades, ability to draw diagrams of electric wiring was tested.
- Related mathematics involving the application of mathematics to specific problems in the particular industry. In commercial education, this objective entailed mastery of information generally subsumed under the heading of business arithmetic. Attainment of this objective was not considered a necessary aspect of instruction in cosmetology.
- Related science involving the application of concepts and principles of the physical or biological sciences to situations arising in a particular trade or industry.

Tests for General Education Objectives

In the appraisal of general education objectives, it was found that valid and reliable tests were available to measure skills and knowledges in reading, written expression, general mathematics, and general science. The standardized tests selected for use were (a) the Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test, (b) the Cooperative English, Test A: Mechanics of Expression, (c) the Cooperative Mathematics Test, and (d) the Cooperative General Science Test.

In the field of social studies, it was not possible to find any standardized test that covered adequately the scope of the content of the New York City courses. As a result, it was necessary to construct tests for measuring pupil knowledge of (a) American heritage, (b) economic processes and relationships, (c) current affairs, and (d) an inventory of civic beliefs and attitudes.

In order to measure the objectives of trade education, a review of standardized tests revealed no tests were available that were valid for New York City courses. It was necessary, therefore, to construct a series of pencil-and-paper tests in order to measure pupil skills and abilities in (a) related mathematics, (b) related science, (c) related drawing, (d) related art, and (e) shop sketching and trade knowledge. In addition, it was necessary to construct performance tests to ascertain student mastery and skills in performing a series of practical job samples.

The program of evaluation was directed toward the appraisal of the effectiveness of instruction in each of the following selected trade or occupational courses offered in the high schools. The six trade areas selected for intensive study and testing were (a) automotive trades, (b) machine shop trades, (c) electrical trades, (d) trade dressmaking, (e) commercial education, and (f) cosmetology. The steps which were followed in the construction of these tests may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. A subject matter specialist or teacher for each of the separate subjects in a particular trade area was assigned to work with a test technician of the Bureau of Educational Research.
2. A job analysis and preliminary test outline, based upon that analysis, was prepared.
3. Tentative test items were written, and each item was then subjected to critical examination by test experts and by a jury of specialists in each trade area covered by each test. These juries included not only teachers but also employers and employee groups in a particular trade.

In order to measure performance, it was necessary to develop a series of work samples representative of each trade. First, a job analysis of the performance skills of each trade as taught in the vocational schools was made and sample jobs were selected. Each job sample was then analyzed into its subsidiary skills, and standards of performance of the skills were determined. Thus it was possible to judge the quality of the performance of the individual as he carried through the activities on an actual job sample. These performance tests were administered to a sampling of pupils in each of the trade areas.

Constructing and Administering a Performance Test in Auto Mechanics: The construction and administration of the performance test in auto mechanics may be used to illustrate the basic procedures followed in all performance tests. By cooperative efforts the subject matter specialist and test technician prepared a job analysis of the trade and a preliminary test outline based upon that analysis. The first edition of the performance test in auto mechanics, for example, consisted of 12 job samples. For the more complex jobs, a maximum of 30 minutes' working time was permitted. For the simpler jobs, a maximum of 15 minutes' working time was allowed. The job samples were as follows:

1. Removing, testing, and replacing the thermostat in an engine.
2. Adjusting points to 0.02 inch, installing, and testing distributor.
3. Making a compression test on the engine and recording results.
4. Tuning-up motor by locating and changing a defective spark plug and setting idle speed and idle mixture.
5. Testing a battery.
6. Measuring with gauge diameter and length of each step in the plug.
7. Removing front wheel, inspecting wheel and brake parts, adjusting, and reassembling.
8. Overhauling and testing a fuel pump.
9. Making and threading a stud to specifications.
10. Setting toe-in to specified inches.
11. Setting clutch pedal clearance to $1^1/_4$ inches.
12. Changing a tire.

In order to provide for objective appraisal, specific steps in each job sample were defined and credit ratings for observed performance were agreed upon. Thus, for removing, testing, and replacing the thermostat, the steps and credits shown in the next column were agreed upon.

Since administration of the original test, composed of 12 subtests required approximately $5^1/_2$ hours, the decision was made to select, if possible, fewer subtests which would give essentially the same results as the complete test, and still retain maximum validity and reliability. The method used for accomplishing this was application of the Wherry-Doolittle mutiple correlation method of test selection.

Steps	*Credit*
Drained water without spilling	1
Knew where to find thermostat	1
Test of thermostat—Chart A	2
Tightened flange bolts evenly	3
Replaced water without spilling	1
No water leaks	1
Proper selection of tools	1
Total	10

Prior to application of correlational techniques, the entire group of eight-term students who had taken the automotive mechanics trade performance test was divided into two groups by using the usual odd-even technique. One of the subgroups of 90 students so formed was used in the test selection procedure; the other group was used for cross-validation.

The next step was to correlate the subtests with each other and with the complete test. In correlating a subtest with the total test, the subtest in question was first subtracted from the total test result in order to prevent the spurious correlation resulting from the contribution of this subtest to the total score.

The cross-validation procedure revealed that the following combination of five subtests; namely: thermostat, compression, tune-up, measurement, and front-wheel alignment, gave the most efficient battery. This battery correlated 0.93 with the total score and had an estimated reliability of 0.81. The administration of this subtest battery required approximately $2^1/_4$ hours. The indications are that a short form of the original automotive mechanics trade performance tests composed of five unweighted subtests may be utilized in place of the longer test with little loss in validity or reliability.

Constructing and Administering Performance Tests in Other Trades: The construction and administration of performance tests in other selected trades followed the basic procedure described for the automotive mechanics performance trade, except that the Wherry-Doolittle multiple correlation method of test selection has not yet been applied to determine whether or

not shorter versions of the tests might provide approximately the same levels of reliability and validity as the original editions of the tests. In all instances, however, the subject matter specialists and test technicians working cooperatively prepared job analyses of each trade and selected tentative job samples to be performed by the pupils. Specific steps in each job sample were defined, and credit ratings for observed performance were agreed upon. The scope and nature of job samples used in tests for selected trades are indicated.

The performance test in electrical installation included the following job samples:

1. Installing a return call system between an annunciator station and two other offices. The existing cable should be used.
2. Installing one receptacle to be controlled by two three-way switches.
3. Fuse testing.
4. Installing a shunt motor controlled by a four-point starting box.
5. Controlling an A.C. motor by a magnetic starter.

The performance test for machine and metal trades consisted of the following job samples:

1. With cold-rolled steel $^1/_8$ x 2 x 4 inches, laying out the piece as specified in a blueprint, cutting and filing for two operations.
2. On a drill press, drilling, reaming, and tapping a piece of metal as specified in a blueprint.
3. On a lathe, turning out as specified and cutting thread as specified for a machine part.
4. On a milling machine, milling slot as specified.
5. Grinding a tool bit.
6. Grinding a twist drill.

The performance test for trade dressmaking included the following job samples:

1. Preparing a tuck-in blouse for a first fitting, making right half of garment only.
2. Making a series of seams such as plain seam, French seam, slot seam, and corded piping.
3. Making tailored buttonholes with self-facing.
4. Making bias binding and roll-hemming.
5. Making machine tucks and bias facing.

Performance tests in business education included job samples for shorthand and typewriting and for bookkeeping. In shorthand and typewriting three letters were dictated; the first as a warming-up letter not to be transcribed. The rates for dictation were 64, 80, and 84 words per minute. The typing test included setting up and typing up a bill or invoice and the retyping of a revised rough draft of a letter.

In bookkeeping, the job samples included: (1) recording on special bookkeeping paper a list of business transactions, (2) posting of entries, and (3) correcting errors which appeared on a trial balance.

The performance test in cosmetology included the following job samples: (1) haircutting, (2) hair tinting, (3) permanent waving, (4) marcel waving, (5) finger waving, and (6) manicuring.

Reliability of the Performance Tests in Selected Trades: In estimating the reliability of the performance tests in selected trades, the Froelich method was used for the eight-term pupils. These estimates range from 0.61 for cosmetology to 0.96 for stenography with a median of 0.93. The reliability estimates for each performance test are as follows: automotive trades, 0.88; machine shop trades, 0.93; electrical trades, 0.94; trade dressmaking, 0.91; stenography, 0.96; bookkeeping, 0.93; cosmetology, 0.61.

Validity of Performance Tests in Selected Trades: Evidence of the validity of performance tests in selected trades was obtained from several sources. First, the job samples were drawn from critical operations performed in the shop and on the job for each trade. The adequacy of the job samples was judged by a jury of employers, trade technicians, and test technicians. Second, the scores on the trade performance tests were compared for pupils having one year, two years, and three years of trade instruction. These groups of pupils were equated on the basis of intelligence. The mean score of the first-year pupils was exceeded by 15 to 20 points by the second-year pupils. The mean score of second-year pupils was exceeded by 10 to 20 points by the third-year pupils. This progressive increase in mean test scores from first to third year of trade instruction permits an inference of substantive validity.

Looking Ahead in Performance Tests for Vocational Skills: Based upon experience

with performance tests for vocational skills in selected trades, the following observations are offered:

- Test examiners agreed unanimously that vocational school pupils were more interested and preferred the performance approach compared with paper-and-pencil examining procedures.
- The instructional and testing practices of teachers in vocational schools have been influenced by the performance tests, and the tests continue to be applied in modified form in some schools.
- A need exists for the construction of performance tests in vocational areas other than those included in this study.
- The tentative performance tests constructed for use in this study need to be analyzed, refined, and reduced in length of time required for administration. The process of refinement should result in an increase of validity, reliability, and objectivity of the performance tests.
- Periodic job analyses of industrial changes and requirements will permit required changes in job samples so that the content of the tests will be up-to-date.
- The problem of adequate norms and standards of performance, especially comparison with on-the-job performance of apprentices in various trades requires study in the refinement of the tests.

A promising beginning has been made in the construction of performance tests in selected trades. Although many problems in the construction of trade performance tests remain to be solved, progress has been encouraging. This aspect of testing has been neglected by both trade and test technicians. It offers a challenge to those who are willing to apply their imagination and skills to a difficult task.

NEW PERSPECTIVE ON EXPRESSION

Since the American can find no confirmation of identity from the environment in which he lives, since he lives exposed to the awareness of vast distances and innumerable existences, since he derives from a belief in the future the courage that animates him, is he not bent on isolating and "fixing" a value on every existing thing in its relation to a totality, to the All, to the Everywhere, to the Always? And does that not require of him a new way of viewing and feeling and describing any existing thing? And would that not require, in turn, a modification of the language?—Thornton Wilder in "Toward an American Language" in July *Atlantic*.

Study Techniques of

THOSE SUPERIOR STUDENTS

DAVID G. DANSKIN AND COLLINS W. BURNETT

WHAT KINDS OF study techniques do superior students have? Do superior students have superior study techniques?

The writers became interested in these problems as a result of the development of a program for superior students in the College of Education at The Ohio State University. Pressey [3] described the beginning of such a program in 1932. Recently Pressey [4] has re-emphasized the importance of working more closely with the superior student. Heald [2] did a follow-up study of superior students who had been graduated from the College of Education during 1946–1950. The present article reports on another of a series of research studies dealing with the superior student.

Although much has been written about the superior student, few investigations have been made of the study methods of superior students. Brown [1], using a 64-item questionnaire, found that: (1) percentages of failing students reporting the use of correct study habits is as large as percentages found among successful students, and (2) large percentages of both failing and successful students fail to make use of many efficient study techniques. Robinson [7] studied a highly selected group of soldiers assigned to ASTP training. Inquiry showed that they had as many, if not more, poor study habits than the average freshman in college. Their average work rate (reading and taking notes) was a low 83 words per minute. Their notes were no better than the average college student; they did poorly on a test of tables and graphs.

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At the University of Pennsylvania, Preston and Tuft [5] analyzed the reading skills of 22 Phi Beta Kappa prospects. They found a wide range of reading ability among the students and concluded from their evidence that good students are typically not efficient readers. Robinson and Hall [8] found that a superior group of students read no faster nor any more accurately when a selection was printed with headings than they did when reading an equated selection without any headings.

This brief review of the literature shows that there is an interest in the superior student. Unfortunately, most of this research seems to be concerned with how the student performs and does not go beyond this point. The writers wanted to investigate the study techniques of superior students not only to have more information on this point but also to make use of this information in developing a better program for superior students in the College of Education.

Collection and Treatment of the Data

An open-ended interview was devised to cover what appeared to be major, common study techniques at the college level. The division of the interview into four areas (studying the text, handling lectures, preparing for and taking examinations, and planning the use of time) follows Robinson's [6] divisions. The study habits de-

Is Brilliant Bob

Better Organized

Than Slow Sam?

scribed are those of 37 students registered in the College of Education at The Ohio State University for the spring quarter 1951. On the basis of grades, each student was among the top 12 in either the freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior class. Each student was interviewed individually and recordings were made of each interview. All interviews were transcribed. The 37 replies to each section of the interview were inspected to see if categories could be formed into which answers could be placed. For all sections, categories were established and each answer was placed in one of these categories. The results are reported in TABLES I through V. In addition, the study skills used by these 37 students were compared with what educational psychologists considered to be efficient study methods.

TABLE I

Number of Superior Students Using Characteristic Methods of Studying a Text

	No.	*Per Cent*
Study assignments immediately	24	65
Preliminary survey of headings and/or summary	22	59
Turn headings of topic sentences into questions and read to answer questions	9	24
Take working notes	7	19
When finish assignment read summary and check any points not sure of	9	24
Review notes to check on main points	2	5
Underline 4 or 5 lines a page, or main points	7	19
Nearly always use tables, charts, graphs, etc.	20	55
When see new word try to get meaning from context and maybe check dictionary, if necessary	32	86
Build list of missed words	0	0
Read lesson completely before stopping	34	92

The methods used in studying the text, and the number of students using each, are reported in TABLE I. The numbers do not total 37 because the students used several of the methods. From inspection of the table it seems that these superior students were not uniform in their study habits. They used a wide variety of techniques. A majority of them apparently make use of cues or guides in the text. Three of the most commonly employed methods were preliminary survey of headings and summaries, studying the charts and graphs, and learning new words. Most of these students did not use such aids to retention as underlining, note taking, reading to answer questions, or reviewing at the end of an assignment. Nearly all liked to read one lesson completely even if it took two or three hours before moving on to another.

TABLE II

Number of Superior Students Using Characteristic Methods of Handling Lectures

	No.	*Per Cent*
Take notes	33	89
Take notes on what think or feel is important	12	32
Listen to professor for cues of what is important before writing	9	24
Notes organized, main points labeled, sub-points indented or set off	32	86
Have one page or less of notes per lecture	9	24
Use large notebooks with courses separated and dated or in running order	17	46

Another area of study methods investigated was the handling of lectures. Results are shown in TABLE II. The striking thing about these methods seems to be that the superior students almost unanimously took too many notes and kept them in what they considered to be some form of an outline. They seemed to be lacking, however, in the most important aspect of note taking—how to know what to include in those notes. Very few of them got cues of what was important from the professor, or, if they did,

they were not aware of it. Also, they seemed to take a greater number of notes than was necessary; nearly all had over one page of notes per lecture. It seems that these students employed some of the basic necessary methods but they need to make these methods more efficient.

TABLE III

Number of Superior Students Using Characteristic Methods of Preparing for and Taking Examinations

	No.	*Per Cent*
Timing of reviews		
Start studying the night before an examination, or two nights before at the most	30	81
Start studying at least 3 nights before and divide lesson into sections to be studied	5	14
Daily review, intermediate review, and review night before examination	2	5
Get plenty of sleep night before examination	24	65
Kind of review		
Study everything	8	22
Study professor's main points OR study headings or topic sentences in book	25	68
Predict questions	3	8
Use same study methods for essay and objective examinations	15	41
Taking objective examinations		
Glance test over to get idea of length and if some parts count more than others	11	30
Omit hard questions and come back to them	32	86
Taking essay examinations		
Glance over the entire test	25	68
Budget time	8	22
Do easiest questions first	10	27
Mentally have an idea what going to say	22	59
Jot down brief outline of few key words before beginning to write	4	11

The techniques used by these students in preparing for and taking examinations are given in TABLE III. One of the outstanding facts gained from this table seems to be that nearly all of the students waited until the last day or two before an examination to start their review. However, they still seemed to spend this time reviewing and not cramming, as a majority of them tried to get plenty of sleep the night before an examination. These students seemed to get good grades *in spite of* how they reviewed and *not because of* how they reviewed. Only three used an active attack in reviewing by predicting questions and then finding answers. Of the 25 who said they studied the professor's cues or topic headings, nearly all were rather vague on what was important. The general emphasis seemed to be on *how much* one knew rather than on *what* one knew.

In taking examinations, the group seemed to vary its methods of attack depending on the type of examination. The general methods seemed to be to start right in on objective examinations without a preliminary scanning and omit hard questions and come back to them. On essay examinations, a large number glanced the examination over and then went ahead and answered the questions in order. Only four jotted down a brief outline before writing on essay questions. The evidence probably indicates that these students have the capacity for doing excellent work and not just the best. All that is needed is some assistance and guidance in learning efficient methods.

TABLE IV

Number of Superior Students Using Characteristic Places of Study

	No.	*Per Cent*
Study in same spot	32	86
Study in easy chair or on bed at home	15	41
At home, at dorm, at a desk, or in a straight chair	12	32
In library facing wall or in a corner	4	11
In library where can see everyone	1	3
No preference where study	5	14

An important variable in skill in attack and concentration is the place a student studies. The places used by these students are reported in TABLE IV. The tendency seems to be to study in about the same place, which makes it easier to get to work immediately. They did not seem to make a point of avoiding all distractions, as nearly half of the students said they like to sit in an easy chair or lie on a bed while studying. Still nearly a majority, 16, studied under recommended conditions.

TABLE V

Number of Superior Students Using Characteristic Methods of Planning the Use of Time

	No.	*Per Cent*
Study when have time	18	48
Study about the same time every day, but do what is most pressing	15	41
Work out a time schedule and follow it (allow for studying same course at same time, for travel, eating, etc.)	4	11
Plan time for recreation, slowing down before bed and other necessary breaks	14	38

The way these students planned their time is shown in TABLE V. Only four used a time schedule, which leads to the most efficient use of time. Nearly one-half of the group made a rather informal attempt at planning time by studying about the same time every day. But, again, the results seem to show that the group as a whole could use some instruction in more effective methods.

How do the study skills of these students compare with what educational psychologists now know to be efficient study methods? An efficient method of studying the text would begin with a quick survey of headings and summaries which helps speed up reading and aids in retention. Asking a question before starting each section aids in reading and remembering what is read by forcing one to read to answer that query. Forcing oneself to recite from memory after reading helps slow down forgetting. Outlining is an additional help in remembering the material. When the lesson has been read through one should review to get an over-all view of the points and see their relationship. In addition, one should pay attention to vocabulary as it is one of the most important aspects of college reading. New words should be understood in the context which they are used and a list of new words should be made. Tables, charts, graphs, and formulas are devices which aid in comprehension and should be used as such. When the study habits of this group of superior students are compared with these efficient skills, the striking fact seems to be that none of the students used all of the effective methods. A number of the methods were employed by some of the students but the trend seemed to be to use poor study skills. Only 21 used what might be termed average or better methods. If this sample is typical of other superior students, it seems that their over-all performance is mediocre.

Recommended Methods

What are some of the efficient recommended methods of handling lectures? One should try to get the central idea by listening for cues which the lecturer gives. Then a brief note should be written down which summarizes the point. The notes should show some organization with the main points labeled and sub-points indented. Notes for one lecture should not cover more than one page. At the end of the hour, or in the evening, daily notes should be glanced over to mark important points, indent sub-points, and determine the organization of the lecture. Here, again, the study techniques of these students left much room for improvement. Although 12 students handled lectures in a manner which was probably a little better than mediocre, only one seemed to be really efficient. The majority of the students described methods which were just fair or quite inefficient.

The recommended methods of preparing for an examination are to read a lesson when assigned and review it after the original reading. Then there should be some

review between the first reading and the final preparation for the examination. For the final review, several sessions should be planned and definite parts of the lesson assigned to each session allowing only one or two hours of review the night before. To aid in preparation an active search should be made for questions which might be asked and answers to these written out. Proper review should prepare a student for either an essay or objective examination. When compared with these higher-level study skills it seems that the high grades these students received were earned apparently with poor methods. Only 10 students gave evidence of practicing methods which approach efficiency and one utilized quite effective techniques. The majority seemed to be mediocre in preparation for examinations.

How To Take An Exam

Some principles assist in taking objective examinations. The first step is to glance the entire text over to see how long it is and if some parts count more than others or might be easier. On this basis time should be budgeted to each page. Then, if every question has equal weight, one should work straight through the entire list and not hesitate too long on any one question. Difficult questions should be omitted and returned to later. Eleven students made a practice of glancing through the entire test and eight divided time among the pages. Thirty-two omitted the difficult questions and came back to them.

The same general procedure should be followed in taking essay examinations (*i.e.*, glance through the test and roughly budget time to each question and do the easiest questions first). In addition, a question that asks for more than a brief definition needs an organized answer. A way to obtain this organization is first to jot down a sketchy outline of points to be covered. Of the 37 students, 25 made a preliminary scanning at the test, eight made a rough budget of the time, ten wrote on the easiest questions first and four jotted down an outline before starting. Again, it seems that the students did not uniformly use efficient skills but received good grades through the use of mediocre methods. As in the other study skills areas discussed there seems to be the possibility for improvement.

Summary and Conclusions

A description of the study methods of these thirty-seven students indicates that they were not uniform in their study techniques. They seemed to use text cues but not to use methods which aid in retention. These students employed some of the basic necessary methods in handling lectures, but they need to make these methods more efficient. These superior students waited until the last day or two before preparing for examinations, and their methods of taking examinations were not so efficient as possible. They usually studied in the same spot, but not always among conditions conducive to concentration. Only four students used a time schedule. When compared with study skills which educational psychologists recommend as efficient, the stated performance of these students was mediocre. The fact that students in this study who made good grades did so with average or below average learning techniques seems to indicate that the knowledge and use of higher level work skills would enable them to attain greater scholastic achievement. This is another reason to support the idea that how-to-study courses at the college level should not be limited to students with low academic standing. College counselors should be alert to this fact and not overlook the possibilities of helping a good student become more efficient in study skills. Obviously there are limitations to the small number of students in this group. Actual observation of students while they are studying would serve as a check on reported study techniques.

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STUDENTS AND THE CLASS STRUCTURE

Now I do not believe that it is the school's obligation to allocate students in the class structure. But the school cannot afford to be insensitive to, or unconcerned about, either the fact of the student's class origin or his class aspirations. Rather than allocate students to their "proper" class position, the school's task is to provide both realistic and idealistic pictures of the student's life chances and of the statuses that go with them. . . . In its proper role as an educational agency, the school's task is to analyze the workings of the social processes by which human beings become identified in class terms and seek to bring the student honestly to assess his competence and life-chances as that analysis would reveal them to him.—*Earl S. Johnson in April School Review.*

ON THE SHAPING OF HUMAN EVENTS

Everything we sense as individuals, and very nearly everything we learn as social psychologists, makes it clear that any gesture of protest, and attempt to modify the course of events, must initially, if not throughout, be a personal one—a reassertion of our own responsibility toward other individuals. . . . I only know that in this world there are pestilences and there are victims, and it is up to us not to ally ourselves with the pestilences! . . . So strongly do I oppose not only atrocities of all kinds, but the pestilence itself from which I believe they spring, that a bald assertion of what I have called "humanity," so far from being neutral, is a declaration of partisanship, of being, more specifically, on the side of man.—Alex Comfort in *The Commonweal*

STUDENTS SCRUTINIZE A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

by EDWARD J. DURNALL, Jr.

IT APPEARS to be a trait of the American public to criticize everything from baseball managers to college presidents and the few attempts that have been made to suppress this trait have resulted in defeat for the parties involved. The Federalists certainly did not help their popularity with the Alien and Sedition Acts nor did the Democratic party fare much better for its part in the Espionage and Sedition Acts passed during World War I. Could it be that the guidance profession is doomed to a similar loss of public support for the same reason? Is it not suppressing criticism from the most important persons involved—the students who come in contact with our guidance programs? What would be revealed if students were given the chance to criticize without fear of retaliation?

Not fearing to rush in where angels fear to tread, the author and his colleagues decided to give the students an opportunity to express their candid opinions of the guidance program in effect at a private junior college for young women. The method which was used is neither novel nor perfect, but it offered the advantage of simplicity and the guarantee of anonymity. A questionnaire was prepared by the guidance department with 18 formulated questions which could be answered in one or two words, but which were followed by a request for reasons supporting the statement and if possible an example of this viewpoint. Room was left for general comments on the effectiveness of the program as well as suggestions for improvement.

The purpose of the questionnaire was discussed during an assembly period and the questionnaires were then distributed and completed by the students who dropped them in a box as they left the room. The replies were then tabulated by a guidance committee and the questionnaires were destroyed.

The area explored by the evaluation ranged from the value and the length of the orientation program to the attitude of the students on male vs. female counselors. While the majority of the students were favorably inclined toward the guidance program, many inadequacies were brought to light. Not all of the teacher-counselors were interpreting test results to their counselees; some teacher-counselors had impressed their counselees as being disinterested, domineering, nervous, and in two cases, "old maidish." One particular belief of the author suffered ignominious defeat by the margin of more than two to one when the students favored a counselor from their field of specialization as opposed to a general counselor. Many helpful suggestions were offered which should have been evident to the guidance department. There was a call for more vocational information, particularly by outside speakers. Teacher-counselors became cognizant of the need to

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Get your Counselees' Reactions on Record

show interest in their counselees at all times and to check themselves when they felt the impulse to tell them what to do. The in-service training program for teacher-counselors now emphasizes the need for and methods of test interpretation.

Criticism is a basic right and a necessity in a democracy and it is the duty of guidance personnel to provide the opportunities for constructive criticism. Not only is mature thinking encouraged by this process, but an invaluable method for improving services is gained.

GROWTH RATE IMPORTANT IN LEARNING

"Nature goes to considerable trouble to see to it that each child starts life as a new individual, a unique person differing from all other children in the world. . . . Some children have rhythms of rapid growth followed by slow growth. Others grow more consistently. Each child has his own pattern of growing.

"This difference in the rate of growth has much significance to the parent and to the teacher. Probably nothing is more important in providing the right nurture for the child than to sense his rate of growth and development. Children who are slow growers often have been badly managed in our schools. They are sometimes treated as though they were abnormal and attempts are made to force them to grow faster. It seems amazing that in this culture there is a firmly entrenched opinion that all children should be able to read by the time they are seven years old or to know fractions by the time they are ten. . . .

"Children who are insecure and unhappy will not learn much in school. Rather than add to the child's problems and frustration by insisting that he achieve at a certain level, the teacher needs to try to understand his insecurity or to recognize that his behavior may be caused by fear. A very obvious way of building the child's security is to appreciate some particular skill or achievement which he possesses. . . . Children are extremely sensitive to the teacher's attitude. . . . We need in our schools warm and friendly teachers, released from rigid demands of school administration and society. When we have such teachers, our children will learn to read, to spell and to do their arithmetic much more effectively. They will also develop wholesome attitudes which will make it possible for them, in spite of failures and difficulties, to continue to learn.—*The Three R's in the Elementary School*, published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, Washington, D. C.

DISCIPLINE

In College Residence Halls

SELBY G. CLARK
DARYL G. HAGIE
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MODERN EDUCATIONAL practice demands that discipline be viewed as a growth process. Punishment of the right kind is sometimes a necessary part of this process, but primary emphasis must be placed upon handling disciplinary problems as positive educational experiences. Disciplinary measures in college residence halls can become sterile, negative, frustrating procedures, or they can result in profitable learning for the students involved.

Sheviakov and Redl[1] have given a rather abstract definition of discipline. This definition, however, provides a good starting point for a consideration of discipline in college supervised living groups: "Discipline consists of those measures necessary to channel individual and group impulses toward the attainment of desired goals." In essence, of course, this is not a new thought, and few educators would quarrel with it *per se*. The crucial factors lie in deciding which type of measures are necessary for each particular type of problem, and when and how to administer them.

The following discussion attempts to incorporate tested experience of head resident counselors with modern educational practice and psychological research for the purpose of setting up some guideposts for achieving a desirable state of discipline in residence halls on our campuses.

Primary emphasis has been placed upon the age-old proverb "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Discipline at its best is not a negative list of "thou shalt not's" enforced by standardized or unusual punishments, but rather, *it is a positive process of learning and development achieved through responsible participation in real life situations.* Intelligent self-control and growth in social understandings and responsibility do not develop in a vacuum. Instead, they are a product of learning by doing.

Essential to achieving the above principle is a second: *a social environment conducive to good discipline must be purposefully established and maintained.* Prerequisite to such an environment is a student development program including (1) adequate counseling facilities within the residence hall, (2) a program of varied activities which helps channel surplus energy into constructive experiences, and (3) a democratic student government within each hall which is made an active partner with the college faculty and administration in studying the problems and potentialities of group living. This partnership must extend to the setting of goals for individual and group development, and to the execution of the activities and processes needed to reach those goals. Key to the implementation of this partnership and essential to

[1] George V. Sheviakov and Fritz Redl, *Discipline For Today's Children and Youth.* Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1944.

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The Result: Frustration

or

Profitable Learning?

the above prerequisites is a well-trained head resident counselor who is able to play a multiple counselor-administrator-activity expert-educator role.

Establishment of Traditions

Vital also to creating a desirable social environment in a living group is the *establishment of traditions embodying good group and individual discipline.* While some traditions have a tendency to outlive their usefulness and must never be allowed to become ends in themselves, experience has proved their worth in promoting continuity of those practices which teach and encourage discipline. Illustrative of this third principle is a comparison of two men's residence halls which will be called A and B. Both were reactivated as men's residences after World War II. A got off to a good start with the aid of a superior, farseeing head resident, and traditions fostering a favorable social environment and good discipline were founded. These traditions have tended to perpetuate themselves and also to attract students who desire such a place to live. Very few traditions of a positive nature were established in B. On the contrary, in the absence of dynamic leadership, negative traditions and attitudes built up. These persisted and hindered the development of that living group in spite of repeated attempts to change them during the past three years. A specific incident can be cited to give point to this comparison.

A group of Christmas carolers sang to each hall from outside recently. At B there were lots of wolf whistles and "smart" remarks directed at the girls of the group. At A the atmosphere was very different. Only one or two students there attempted any such action and, significantly, were quickly and effectively told to "pipe down" by other members of the house. Here was group self-discipline! The residents of A were responding to a tradition of courtesy and of doing nothing that would reflect negatively on their hall. The offenders in B, following a tradition of non-conformity and so-called independence, had developed no feeling of responsibility to the good name of their group. Nor had a tradition of intra-group disciplining developed which would give the other students who were concerned by this unseemly action the necessary group sanction to correct the offenders. Many living groups, while not unwilling to deal with the more serious and tangible breaches of rules and those obvious actions against the will of the group, still have not achieved that state of discipline which demands the acceptance of self-imposed restrictions for the good of the group.

Responsibility or Discipline

Acceptance of responsibility by students for self-direction and the establishment of traditions conducive to good discipline can best be promoted by giving *immediate responsibility for discipline to the living group.* All violations of college regulations should be referred for initial action to the student government of the residence hall in which the offender lives. Students are quick to sense whether they are trusted for responsible decisions or whether they are just play acting.

Democratic Supervision

This principle does not prescribe abdication of administrative and faculty interest or responsibilities, but it shifts their role from authoritarian control to democratic supervision of situations that should eventuate in profitable, educational experience for the student. It is self-evident but often overlooked by college authorities that the most satisfactory solutions to disciplinary problems are those formulated in conference with the students concerned. When the living group is made a responsible partner in handling its own disciplinary cases, much of the pull and haul between the administration and the students, which in itself is the source of many problems of discipline, is eliminated.

The dean of students at a western university recently had an irate townsman call at his office. The boys in a residence hall located next door to his home had been setting off firecrackers late at night. Not one, not just a few, but whole volleys inside and outside the hall were exploded, he complained. The dean agreed that the boys

should know better and promised immediate action. Forthwith, he sent a stern letter to the hall threatening drastic steps if the nuisance were not stopped at once. The firecrackers continued to pop without letup. The dean was out on a limb. He had, in effect, challenged the boys to a duel—his authority against their will and ability to defy him—and the boys accepted the challenge. Temperatures went up and a nasty situation developed. Considerable ill will and unwelcome publicity resulted. Further investigation revealed that the majority of students in the hall objected to the noise also, but were either carried along by the mass reaction to the dean's ultimatum, or felt no responsibility for correcting the offenders because the dean had taken over. The dean had missed the best means of dealing with this situation by not being aware that the most effective control of student behavior comes from within the student group.

However, not all attempts by students to deal with their discipline problems are successful. Success is dependent upon more than just making the living group responsible for the behavior of its members. As has been indicated, it is partially dependent upon good traditions and a healthy social atmosphere. All these characteristics are dependent upon a reasonably well-organized house government which has the respect of its house members. Part of this respect is gained when the college authorities show their confidence in the house government by giving it real powers and responsibilities. Another part is gained only when the student government does something with these powers and responsibilities. It goes without saying that that which is done depends upon the attitude and the understanding with which the student government approaches its duties. Members of this governing body should be made aware of the significance of their position and the responsibility of their office. This awareness can be sharpened in both the members and student officers through installation rites designed to emphasize the importance of student government in group living. Even more important, of course, is a definite training program for the officers. This training, under the leadership of the head resident counselor and the outgoing officers, should be designed to include parliamentary procedure, group leadership, and principles of discipline in college residence halls.

Through such a training program, the head resident counselor should strive to enable student leaders to develop a student-personnel point of view.

Definite Policies Called For

These student leaders need to understand that *definite policies must be established and consistently followed.* Part of these policies will, of course, already have been established through past house and college experience, but each succeeding class of students and each new house government needs to re-establish them in its own thinking. Each major policy and procedure should be reviewed with respect to its contribution to residence hall discipline (as broadly defined herein). Those areas not adequately covered, and those needing revision should be put on the year's agenda for study and action. It is particularly important that all students understand the necessity of consistency in the application of disciplinary measures. Probably no other single factor has a more deleterious effect upon good discipline than inconsistent policies and procedures. Inconsistency breeds contempt and laxity. Consistency should not be confused with rigidity nor with standardized punishments unremittingly meted out. Rather, it is primarily concerned with the fact that infractions should seldom be ignored. The action taken need not necessarily be punishment—it might be an anecdotal note in the counselor's files, a mild reminder by the appropriate person, or it may demand extensive counseling. However, attitudes conducive to flouting regulations are nurtured when disciplinary action is on a hit-and-miss basis. Following the theme of consistency, it might well be added that no threats or declarations should be made by the discipline committee that cannot be carried out. This practice can

send the prestige and effectiveness of a house government to low levels.

The handling of disciplinary problems should be made a constructive educational experience for all concerned . . . the offender or offenders, the disciplinary body, and the entire living group. This principle is inherent in much of what has already been said, but it merits re-emphasis. Each case should be considered in such a way as to increase skill and understanding in group dynamics and individual adjustment problems.

While all cases do not turn out as happily as the following example, it will help to illustrate how this principle can be achieved.

Annette had not made much of an impression one way or another in her living group until she came home one evening staggering noisily through the goodnight crowd outside the door. Her intoxicated condition was obvious to all, and, of course, could not be ignored by those responsible for discipline. Many of the girls were for throwing the book at her because she had reflected adversely on the hall by her actions. However, the discipline committee, at the suggestion of the head resident counselor, decided to investigate rather carefully before acting upon her case. Inquiry revealed that in spite of a very poor home background which included an alcoholic mother this was the first offense the girl had committed for a long time. Questioning showed that Annette was eager to be given a second chance, which the committee granted. Further, as soon as opportunities arose she was purposely given a position which entailed some responsibility and prestige. She was also encouraged to participate in some of the social activities in her hall. Such a disposition of her case proved to be a turning point for her. Not only was there no repetition of her first offense, but once she had found that others were concerned for her welfare and wanted her in their group, she developed rapidly into a stable, self-sufficient individual of whom any group could be proud.

Objectivity Demanded

Most cases contain real potentialities for educational growth and self-discipline through democratic processes; and should, whenever possible, be utilized to these ends. In order to achieve these goals, *objectivity must be maintained by the committee or council handling discipline problems.* Personal feeling and biases toward the individual accused should not be allowed to influence the disposition of the case. What seems to be a tendency in new or untrained living-group disciplinary bodies was reported by a counselor in a women's residence hall. The girls on the discipline committee in this hall found themselves considering cases, not on their merits alone, but in terms of "What will she (the girl being considered) think of me if we decide to punish her What will her friends' reactions be toward me?" Obviously, the stand taken by any of the individual members of the disciplinary body should not be disclosed, officially or unofficially. Fear of personal involvement with the individual in question creates a tendency to seek refuge in standardized punishments for specific violations. Many students feel that it is easier to be objective when the issue merely becomes a question of guilty or not guilty. Too much reliance on such a technique results not in an educative experience, but merely in the disposition of a disagreeable task in the easiest possible manner. In order to promote those factors contributing to discipline in its best sense, each case must be considered separately (within the framework of the principles set forth herein). The disciplinary body should be aided by the head resident counselor in the understanding and application of discipline in a manner conducive to good group morale and individual growth.

It is important that all concerned with discipline in college residence halls recognize some of the special problems faced by students in institutions of higher learning. Problem behavior on this level is often the direct result of pressure and an inability to succeed in either academic or social pursuits. This does not condemn either of these goals as inimicable to student welfare, but it does point out that counseling is more often needed than punishment.

When punishment is deemed necessary, it should be as mild and reasonable as possible to start with. Further punishment, if deemed necessary, should proceed on a graduated scale. Unfair or severe punishment provokes rebellion and misunderstanding. Preferably, *punishment should be a direct outgrowth of the act.* As a case in point, several boys in a dormitory one evening had a water fight. The next morning the janitor complained to the head resident counselor that the water had ruined the floor wax. He demanded that something be done to the boys. The discipline committee wisely decided that the best action was to require the offenders to rewax the floor. This was not a busy work punishment nor was it a punishment that destroyed respect for daily tasks and individual obligations. This punishment, however, brought home to the boys a better understanding of the effects of their action on the group, upon themselves, and on the house they lived in.

Regardless of the decision of the house discipline committee, when disciplinary action involving penalty is taken, the rights of both the individual and the group must be considered. Without question, the individual must have the right of appeal to a higher student-faculty authority, but the decision of the group should abide except in extenuating circumstances. A guiding principle in meting out punishment is that care should be taken to allow the individual to maintain his sense of dignity and self-respect.

In summary then, it may be re-emphasized that there is little room in a good residence hall program for the consideration of discipline as a negative process of preventing students from doing what they ought not. Discipline must be considered as a positive educational process through which students are helped to become mature, self-controlled citizens—citizens whose actions are based upon enlightened understandings of how their actions influence the welfare of the group and how the welfare and actions of the group influence the well being of the individual. Disciplinary measures ought always to help students to develop into well adjusted individuals, able to maintain their individuality and at the same time adapt to the needs of the group.

Courses in occupations now enroll more high school students than solid geometry or trigonometry or German or journalism or office practice or retailing or salesmanship and advertising or economic geography or consumer education.

Occupations is taught in every state except Nevada. More than 5,000 students are enrolled in occupations courses in California, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Texas. Total enrollment for the United States exceeds 150,000.

Further details may be found in the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1948–1950 recently released by the U. S. Office of Education.

ASSOCIATION ACTIVITIES

Reports from divisions, officers, and committees of A.P.G.A.

ACTING EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

Robert Shaffer announced recently that the Executive Committee of APGA had asked Nancy Shivers to serve until July 1, 1953, as Acting Executive Secretary of the Association. Mrs. Shivers replaces Willa Norris who has accepted the position of Assistant Professor of Guidance and Counseling at Michigan State College.

In announcing Miss Norris' departure, Dr. Shaffer said, "The Executive Committee extends its sincerest appreciation for Miss Norris' fine work, and for her resourcefulness and initiative in developing the many new procedures and practices required by the new Association. We congratulate her on her continued professional recognition and commend MSC for its good fortune in securing her services."

The new Acting Executive Secretary, Nancy Shivers, has been with APGA and NVGA since 1948 as Assistant Editor of the JOURNAL. She holds the MA degree from Radcliffe College and the BA from the University of Alabama. Before coming to NVGA she held writing and editing positions with an international organization, a university press, a newspaper, and a wire service.

Sara Eden, who will fill the assistant editor's position until July 1, 1953, is a Phi Beta Kappa graduate of the University of Oklahoma who has done graduate work at George Washington University. Mrs. Eden was until recently a summary writer for the National Production Authority and during the war held a research position with OSS.

notes from NVGA Branches

The New Jersey Guidance and Personnel Association, meeting on November 7 at the Atlantic City Convention of NJEA, heard an address by Harry C. McKown, Editor of *School Activities Magazine*, on "Guidance, Curriculum, and Youth," a discussion of progress and trends in the area of school work where subject-matter interests and pupil-development objectives come together. . . . The New York Vocational Guidance Association met on October 9 to hear Max F. Baer, President of NVGA, and Donald E. Super, President of APGA, speak on "Our New Professional Alliance—What Can We Get, What Can We Give?" Members also considered the possibility of establishing a local branch of APGA. . . . "Education and the Draft" was the theme of the Miami Valley Guidance Association's meeting on October 1. Members viewed two short films from the "Are You Ready for the Draft" series: "Your Plans" and "Starting Now," and heard Lt. Col. R. E. Clouse, Executive Officer of the State Selective Service Headquarters, discuss current aspects of the Selective Service Act and what it holds for those eligible. . . . Guidance workshops were held at the University of Colorado and San Diego State College during the past summer. Leonard Miller of the U. S. Office of Education conducted the Colorado workshop and spoke to the local Branch on

implications of the new APGA and on present trends in guidance. Other Branch speakers included: William Seigle, Dean of Men, Washburn University, "How to Measure Success on the Job or in the School"; Stanley Brown, University of Colorado, "The Role of Guidance in Science Education"; Edwin Carr, University of Colorado, "Guidance and its Relation to a Social Studies Program." Robert Carlsen, Francis Clark, and William Bronson also addressed the group. The San Diego workshop was directed by George A. Koester, Assistant Professor of Education, San Diego State College; Ralph Jensen, Director Child Study Services, Phoenix, Arizona, was the keynoter. Topics studied included: "Parent-Teacher Conferences in the Elementary Schools"; "Administration of a Guidance Program in Elementary Schools"; "Problems of the Exceptional Child"; "Group Guidance Practices"; and "A Better Understanding of the Development of Personality as an Aid to Counseling." . . . The sixth annual New England Regional Guidance Conference of NVGA, meeting October 2–4 at Portsmouth, N. H., saw a demonstration of field visit techniques with visits to the U. S. Naval Retraining Command (rehabilitation program) and the N. H. Technical Institute, Portsmouth (postsecondary vocational training program). Members also heard Harold J. Mahoney, Director of Guidance Services, Connecticut, on "Utilization of Techniques in Guidance at the Various Levels of Organization"; and saw a demonstration on "The Sociodrama" by J. Wendell Yeo, Dean of School of Education, Boston University. Other demonstrations included: "Counseling" under the chairmanship of Dugald Arbuckle, Boston University; "Presenting Occupational Information" chaired by Mary Basso, Supervisor of Guidance and Placement, Department of Public Schools, Providence, R. I.; "Elementary School Guidance Techniques" chaired by Thomas Ginn, Boston Public Schools; "Effectiveness of Group Guidance as a Guidance Procedure and the Psychological Importance of the Methods Involved" under the chairmanship of Mary D. Basso; "Role Playing" chaired by B. Howard Peake, Vermont State Director of Guidance Services. Groups also discussed "How to Plan and Carry out Techniques of Research," "Techniques of Follow-Up Studies," "Use of Films as a Guidance Procedure," "Mental Hygiene Techniques," and "Tours as a Guidance Procedure"—an evaluation of the Portsmouth tours. A post conference day was devoted to a discussion of "Making Test Results Meaningful" under the leadership of Paul McIntyre, Head of Testing Service, University of New Hampshire.

There's an APGA

Convention

in

chicago

MARCH 30 — APRIL 2

hope to see you there

WHO'S WHO —and WHERE

W. HERMAN BELL, former District Supervisor, Norfolk Regional Consultation Service, Virginia State Department of Education, is now Supervisor of Guidance of the Portsmouth, Virginia, City Schools.

LYLE M. SPENCER, President of Science Research Associates, has been elected Chairman of the Young Presidents' Organization in Chicago. Membership in this group is open only to executives who, by the age of 39, have become presidents of firms with at least $1,000,000 annual sales. The organization numbers 428 company presidents across the country.

FORREST H. KIRKPATRICK, former Dean of Bethany College and Associate Editor of *Occupations,* is now Assistant to the President, Wheeling Steel Corporation, Wheeling, West Virginia.

DWANE R. COLLINS has received a year's leave of absence from the University of Connecticut for the current year. He will assist in the development of a student personnel program for Instituto Tecnico de Aeronautica, Sao Jose dos Campos, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

ROBERT S. WALDROP, formerly Dean of Students at Vanderbilt University, was appointed Chief of the new Vocational Counseling program in the Department of Medicine and Surgery of the Veterans Administration, effective July 1, 1952.

ELLIS D. TOOKER has been appointed Director of Guidance for the Hartford, Connecticut, public schools.

MILDRED G. FOX, who was Guidance Counselor at the Westfield, New Jersey, high school, is now the senior guidance consultant at Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

MARIE M. DOENGES is the new personnel officer for secretarial and clerical employees of Teachers College, Columbia University. Miss Doenges was formerly associate personnel director of Antioch College.

ROBERT D. AGONE, former Guidance Counselor, South Kortright & Stanford Central Schools, South Kortright & Stanford, New York, has accepted the position of Boys' Counselor at the Union-Endicott High School, Endicott, New York.

With the elevation of ROBERT HOPPOCK to the "college of cardinals," the division of advanced studies at the School of Education, New York University, where his primary concern will be doctoral studies, VELMA HAYDEN became Chairman of the Department of Guidance and Personnel Administration, effective October 1, 1952.

J. MYRON JOHNSON, formerly a vocational consultant on the staff of the Laboratory of Psychological Studies of the Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey, has been promoted to the position of assistant director of the Laboratory.

JOSEPH G. PHELAN, an assistant director, has been appointed assistant professor of psychology at the Stevens Institute of Technology. In addition to other duties, he will act as student counselor to the undergraduate body.

HOWARD C. KLOPP, formerly with the Psychology Department of Northwestern University, has been appointed Placement Director at Wright Junior College, Chicago, Illinois.

VICTORIA L. LARSON, who was Director of Guidance at the Lago Community High School, Lago Oil & Transport Co. Ltd., Aruba, Netherlands West Indies, is now Freshman Consultant, Guidance Services, in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

GEORGE W. CANFIELD, Principal of Central High School in Ypsilanti, has received a part-time appointment to teach in the field of Guidance and Counseling at the Michigan State Normal College.

YOU MIGHT LIKE TO READ . . .

■ "A Red Rose From Teacher" by John Kord Lagemann in the August *Nation's Business* is also a red rose to the Bloomington, Illinois, public schools. This well-illustrated article, both pictorially and by anecdote, recounts how Superintendent George N. Wells and his staff "have gone a long way in solving a problem that's become critical in most American communities: How to close the gap between school and community and combine their resources to help youngsters discover and make the best use of whatever individual ability they happen to possess." The significant part played by the program of guidance services under the direction of Emaline Kollman is also told. That it is fact, not fiction, is verified by this reviewer who has had the privilege of seeing the Bloomington schools in action.

■ The significance of the guidance service in advancing moral and spiritual values is made both implicit and explicit in *The Local Association Considers Moral and Spiritual Values,* Local Association Activities Leaflet Number 15, obtainable from the Educational Policies Commission of the NEA and AASA, 1201 16th St., NW, Washington 6. Practical plans for activities, including discussion questions, are presented.

■ "Evaluating a Counseling Procedure" by Frank W. Miller is found in the September *Journal of Educational Research* in which an attempt is made both to evaluate the program of counseling offered by the Guidance Laboratory of the Northwestern University School of Education and to "assess the advantages and limitations of certain evaluative techniques." Criteria, developed through conferences with other professional workers, were classified according to immediate and short-range effects of counseling and the long-range effects of counseling. Results are reported and analyzed.

■ Check the September *Clearing House* if you are concerned with adjustment as related to social status and to acceptance by peers. In "Social Status and Adjustment in School," Joel B. Montague reports on a questionnaire study covering seniors of approximately half of the high schools in the State of Washington. Status groups were determined by student responses to questions relative to the social status of their families, and the problem attacked was that of determining "whether a significant relationship existed between the students' appraisal of their parents' status in the community and students' responses to the selected items on the problem check list." Among the numerous conclusions is found: "Not only was the lower-status group the most critical of the school, but it also exhibited the most self-criticism." In "School —Through the Eyes of the Under-chosen," Onas Scandrette concludes that the under-chosen child feels that teachers are "unfriendly, unkind, and unfair" and recommends that teachers endeavor to show a special interest in the under-chosen, use sociometric techniques, and de-emphasize marks.

■ The September *School Review* rings the bell again for guidance workers with four articles of interest and value to them. L. Ross Cummins and C. Winfield Scott, in "Philosophical Bases of Community Guidance Services," review the literature of that subject in terms of auspices, services rendered, clientele, professional staff, interagency relationships and major persistent problems. They raise some unanswered questions and comment: "The existence of so many unanswered questions in connection with community guidance services suggests that the field is a rich one for research." A comprehensive bibliography is included.

"What the Elmtowners Think of the

Elmtown Study" by William C. Kvaraceus, in the same issue, should be read both by those who were somewhat critical of that study's techniques and conclusions and those who accepted it as "gospel." The author says that "The large bulk of the respondents . . . tended to deny or minimize the findings of the study and the value of the research and to reject the individual connected with the study." After discussing the implications in terms of how the techniques and aftermath might be improved, Kvaraceus concludes that "it may be that some communities must be sacrificed on the altar of scientific research."

"Stability of High-School Students' Interest in Science and Mathematics" "fails to substantiate claims that interest is likely to be a reliable predictor of talent in individuals." Mallinson and Van Dragt, while detecting some stability of interest, point out that "one is not justified in assuming that it will remain in the same rank. Students who are guided into science or into mathematics at Grade IX, or into curriculums emphasizing science or mathematics, may find themselves more interested in music, social science, or some other area of study at Grade XII. The guidance, therefore, may be chiefly 'misguidance.'" In the same issue, Percival W. Hutson offers "Selected References on Guidance" covering the latter half of 1951 and the first half of 1952.

■ A definition of culture "which makes clear certain of the inter-connections between learning theory and culture theory" is offered by Omar K. Moore and Donald J. Lewis in the September *Psychological Review*. The analysis grows out of an allegation by the authors that *Personality and Psychotherapy* by Dollard and Miller does not offer a definition adequate for the exploration of interrelations between these two areas.

■ "The Development of an Equation for Identifying the Interests of Carpenters," by Hendrik D. Mugaas and Ruport Hester is presented in the Autumn *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. Based on a study of workers in this building trade, this article suggests that "it is possible to secure a characteristic profile on the *Kuder Preference Record* and to develop a stable equation for identifying interests characteristic of carpenters."

In the same issue, Robert Cobb Myers presents "Biographical Factors and Academic Achievement: An Experimental Investigation." The Applications for Admission blank of an eastern women's liberal arts college was found to contain seven items "which, if properly interpreted and scored, could add to the multiple correlation of certain standard predictors with college academic achievement, as measured by freshman-year grade-point-average." A scoring key was developed, based on the biographical items, in which double weight is given those items found to be most highly statistically significant. Items used were religion, out-of-school social and civic activities, size of home town, county of residence, nativity of parents, birth order of student, and high school offices held.

"Assessment of the Social-Emotional Climates Experienced By a Group of Seventh Graders as They Moved From Class to Class" is another contribution by John Withall. The differing psychological climates encountered and the influence of the teacher therein are explored.

■ The story of the white-collar worker in the Cleveland area is found in "The White-Collar Employee—He's Doing all Right" by James Black and Hubbard C. Capes in the September *Personnel*. In fact, these authors claim, the office worker is doing so well that union organization is making little headway. This is a detailed article replete with occupational information which should be interpreted in the light of the authors' avowed purpose of making a point. Deryck Adamson writes in the same issue on "Selection and Appraisal of Engineering Graduates: A Case Study" for the purpose of showing how one company, contrary to the policy of many, follows a plan "for building up a stable engineering force through highly selective recruiting, and continuous appraisal during the initial period of employment to determine how engineering trainees can best be developed."

■ A very realistic, if somewhat pessimistic, article on "The Limitations of Personnel Management" is that by W. H. Knowles in the September *Personnel Journal*. He examines the divergent sets of values of management and employees and asks for proof that the "human relations" approach in at-

tempting to build morale and personal development will bring satisfactory returns (profits) to the business. The gist: "Consequently, attempts by personnel departments to assume the role of mediator between employer and employees; to be counselor and chaplain for labor; or to be spokesman for employees is doomed to failure. . . . Recognizing that industrial conflict contains elements beyond the scope of personnel management, it must stay within proved methods of personnel management. These methods are sound and useful, and can do much to minimize industrial unrest even though they are no panacea."

■ This reviewer would again express the hope that guidance workers are becoming acquainted with the many practical suggestions contained in the issues of *Adult Leadership*. The September issue includes "The Case of the Hidden Agenda" and "Working Toward Goals." Most of these articles, while directed to the adult education worker, are applicable to younger groups. In addition, persons in positions of leadership in guidance and personnel should find this publication helpful in their efforts to strengthen their public relations and community coordination arms. "We All Know Why We're Here" is a case in point. It dramatizes a bungled attempt to organize a School Citizens Committee.

■ News bulletins and newsletters of state-supervisors of guidance often contain considerable information of interest primarily to counselors in the states in which they are issued. Often, these newsletters contain reprints from sources more easily available by other means for those located outside the states of issue. We're scanning them, however, and have discovered that Raymond S. Orr, Wyoming Supervisor of Guidance Services, has a very convincing article on "Why Teach Occupational Information?" in his *Guidance News Bulletin* for September.

■ In "Spotlighting Vocations" in the September *Nation's Schools*, Everett Seaman examines the limitations of career days and tells why he thinks that a vocational club, rendering school-wide service, is a more promising activity on which to put one's efforts. A club of 50 concentrated on one occupation each month, gathered all available materials into an attractive display for all members of the school, and distributed the materials to classes, other schools, and especially interested students when the displays were dismantled. This reviewer would appraise this as an unusual and effective technique if care is taken to avoid the "booby traps" inherent in all spectacular one-shot efforts—especially that of failing to provide the many other services necessary to a well-rounded program of guidance services.

■ The October *American Junior Red Cross Journal* contains "Everything Starts With You" by Florence Kerigan which counselors and teachers might find useful if called to the attention of boys and girls. "You and friends" and "You and school life" are discussed from the angle of the self-concept and self-responsibility. A check list of personal problems, taken from Junior Life Adjustment Series' "You and Your Problems" is also presented.

■ "Social workers have suffered both from a true humility, which is the basis of any scientific attitude, and the inferiorities of a newcomer among the professions. We shall progress as a mature self-criticism replaces insecurity and false modesty." Replace "social workers" with "guidance workers" and you are not too far away from asserting a truth about our own profession. This and other evidences of commonality and similar basic interests and responsibilities are to be found in "The Role of Social Casework in Social Policy," by Gordon Hamilton in the October *Social Casework*. He says: "These three principles—professional knowledge in use; ethical goals in method (in human events, means, and ends must be equally justified); and acceptance of the individual's right to be different—should guide the social worker's role in social action." He also calls for "a stronger alliance among the social sciences, such as cultural anthropology, social psychology, economic and political science. . . ."

Ewan Clague writes in the same issue on "Economic Factors Affecting Family Living" and examines such aspects as stability of income, living conditions and the world situation, all of which are pertinent to realistic choices and adjustments.—CLARENCE W. FAILOR, *College of Education, University of Colorado.*

YOU MIGHT LIKE TO SEE . . .

Visual materials may serve evil purposes. Our newstands today are a disgrace with their heavy freight of pornography and their catering to carnal man rather than to intellectual and moral man.

And some of our "general" journals spread multiple and dirty untruths and act sanctimoniously at the same time. The cult of castigation took over the June issue of *The American Legion.* It makes one want to vomit to see pictures of reputable educators put side by side with a picture of Hitler and Hess reviewing German youth. This is the smear by association device developed as an unwholesome technique by certain "immune" characters in our society. Just for the record, your reviewer thinks that more of us in education should be aware that such attacks are designed not alone to blacken the character of individuals, but to discredit the whole of the American school system.

■ Parent-teacher organizations and child study groups may find useful a catalogue of mental health motion pictures compiled by the National Institute of Mental Health. The publication describes 106 films under the categories: child and family; marriage; mental health and schools; mental health problems; and others. Titled *Mental Health Motion Pictures—A Selected Guide, 1952,* the booklet is available from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at $.30 a copy.

■ Kenneth Bowers, who has been reviewing the *Emotions of Everyday Living* series for us, contributes another of the series in the following review.

Farewell to Childhood is a black and white sound motion picture twenty minutes in length. It is the fourth of the series sponsored by the Mental Health Board, which includes *Steps of Age, Angry Boy,* and *Fears of Children.*

In *Farewell to Childhood* some of the problems of the teen-age girl are illustrated. Susan Stewart, in her natural attempts to grow toward independent adulthood, feels sure that her parents do not understand or love her. But her high school counselor is her ideal, and with Susan's parents and the counselor working together, steps are made toward a better understanding on the part of both Susan and her parents.

Groups intending to discuss the problems of teen-age girls should find the film an effective stimulant. The problems of parental discipline, dating, and party going, and social approval among adolescents are well illustrated. A possible role of the counselor is also shown. The film is sympathetic to the conflicting interests of both the parents and the child, and while no rules for a successful relationship are set down, fundamental principles and general advice are offered to both.

This film upholds the high standards of technical performance set by preceding films in this series. Picture, sound track, direction, and acting are of excellent quality. At times the script seems preachy, but it is simple and direct. *Farewell to Childhood* should be of value in generating and guiding discussion of parents, of teenagers, and counselors and others whose work implies an understanding of adolescent behavior. It is distributed by International Film Bureau, 57 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago 4, Illinois, and is available on a rental basis from the New York University Film Library.

■ A United Nations announcement indicates that a new documentary film about the work of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund is being released in 11 languages to 71 countries throughout the world.

The one-reel film is called *The Children* and shows how the Fund is helping Asia.

Latin America, Europe, and the Mediterranean develop adequate medical, nutrition, and child-care training services.

■ The Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., issued in July, 1952, a new handbook on the planning of classrooms for the effective use of audio-visual instructional materials. It is entitled *Planning Schools for Use of Audio-visual Materials—No. 1 Classrooms.* Irene Cypher is chairman of the handbook authors and this handbook was edited by Ann Hyer, in consultation with leading authorities. At $1.00 it is a good investment.

■ *Drug Addiction,* an Encyclopedia Britannica 20-minute black and white film, was made with the purpose of showing youth the evil of drug addiction. The film shows how youth can easily develop the drug habit. The sources of the drugs and how they affect the body are shown. Drugs are illustrated as irritants and depressives. Drawings and graphs depict the effect of drugs on the heart and brain.

Drug addiction is described as a living death where nothing matters but satisfaction of the craving. The point is made that drugs enslave the body and soul and that victims get no pleasure out of their addiction.

There is a good portrayal of how the drug habit is spread throughout the community. Dealers persuade youngsters to try drugs and very soon these youngsters are "hooked."

The film shows one boy starting with marijuana and becoming a heroin addict. He is shown arriving in a courtroom, hospital, and finally home again. The "cure" in the picture looks too easy. This could be quite misleading.

In a summary, the commentator indicates that we need better facilities for treatment, improved laws, and cooperation on the part of young people to defeat drug traffic. The point is stressed that no one should ever experiment with drugs, since completely avoiding them is the only way to be sure of escaping enslavement. This film has provoked a tremendous amount of discussion in the groups to which it has been shown.

■ *Alcoholism,* an Encyclopedia Britannica 20-minute black and white film, treats of the problems associated with the excessive use of alcohol. While pointing out that alcoholics are all different, the film uses the case study approach to depict an alcoholic. The film shows that alcoholism is often an escape from insecurity or from some other mental burden. It indicates that there is no easy way out of alcoholism, but that satisfaction can come out of conquering the evil. Several treatment approaches are described. As with *Drug Addiction* the facts are correct—top consultants were called in to advise in the production of the films.

■ Two of the most popular films for use in classes in psychology, sociology, and counseling are the two parts of the film *Learning to Understand Children,* produced by McGraw-Hill, and running for 21 minutes each.

Part I—*A Diagnostic Approach* is a case study of Ada Adams, an emotionally and socially maladjusted girl of 15. The film records the efforts of her teacher, Miss Brown, to help her. Diagnostic techniques, such as observation of the child's behavior, study of her previous records, personal interviews, home visits, and formulation of a hypothesis for remedial measures, are shown in some detail. The techniques apply to the diagnosis of difficulties of children in general.

Part II—*A Remedial Program* is a continuation of the case study of Ada Adams. Miss Brown develops a plan for remedial action which uses Ada's interest in art as a means for improving Ada's confidence and interest in her schoolwork, as well as for winning recognition by her schoolmates. The techniques illustrated in the film indicate the kind of remedial procedures that may be used in dealing with many types of maladjustments.

The films are of excellent quality. They should be used together. They may be followed up by film-strip sequences and used to teach many excellent lessons.—WILLIAM D. WILKINS.

BOOKS REVIEWED

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

THE NATURE OF NONDIRECTIVE GROUP PSYCHOTHERAPY—AN EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION, by Leon Gorlow, Erasmus L. Hoch, Earl F. Telschow. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1952.

SCIENTISTS SEEKING objective evaluation of existing practices will welcome *The Nature of Nondirective Group Psychotherapy*. It will serve as a helpful source book for those planning research in the area of group techniques. It will disappoint those persons who have been waiting for a book which might help them improve their skill in group therapy.

The authors of this text have developed a rather different kind of book. They have set for themselves a carefully limited goal, that of reporting the results of three dissertations which employed the same body of data. This task they have done with scientific restraint and objectivity.

The book is divided into seven chapters. Each of the three authors has a chapter describing his own study. Hoch explores "The Nature of The Group Process in Nondirective Group Psychotherapy," Gorlow describes "An Analysis of the Behavior of Members as Therapists," and Telschow reports on "An Analysis of The Role of The Leader." The remaining chapters are devoted to describing the underlying philosophy of the studies, a review of the literature on group therapy, the general procedures employed, and a summary of the conclusions derived from the results.

It is not unusual for a doctoral dissertation to serve as the basis for a book. When three studies are joined into one text the results depend upon the manner in which they are integrated. Gorlow, Hoch, and Telschow have created a book which hangs together. Its major weakness arises from the nature of its presentation. The detailed presentation of procedure employed to develop instruments, as well as the statistical tests utilized to evaluate the data, renders a service to those persons planning similar research. To the bulk of the potential readers seeking some help in finding operational techniques they can employ on their jobs, the minute reporting appropriate for dissertations obscures the results and makes for difficult reading.

This book has devoted itself exclusively to group psychotherapy which was conducted in a non-directive manner. Although the studies attempted to avoid constructs which were limited to any one counseling philosophy, the underlying hypotheses stemmed from the theories of Rogers, Snygg and Combs and others who have described personality in phenomenological terms.

The non-directive school is basically committed to the idea that any changes in behavior reflect changed perceptions by the person involved. Any change in behavior therefore demands that the self-concept (character structure?) of the individual is simultaneously being modified.

With that as a framework Hoch's interpretation of part of this data is of particular interest. He states: "Thus, what one finds in non-directive group psychotherapy is apparently not a 'reversal of form,' that is, a profound alteration of character structure, but rather a qualitative change of feeling and attitude (as expressed in verbal symbols) within the confines of a given personality."

If we assume that his data warrant such an interpretation, the phenomenological and Gestalt heritage of nondirective therapy is in jeopardy. Hoch has followed this statement by throwing down the gauntlet to other types of group psychotherapy, suggesting a need for equivalent studies to determine the contributions of other therapeutic techniques. All three men have pointed to areas demanding additional research.

The rest is up to us.—WALTER M. LIFTON, *Assistant Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Illinois.*

A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO EDUCATION, by L. A. Cook and E. F. Cook. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950. 514 pp. $4.50.

THIS BOOK IS LISTED by the publishers as a revision of an earlier book by Dr. Cook entitled *Community Backgrounds of Education.* In reality however, it is a new book. The authors' center of interest is not merely a sociological analysis of "what is." *A Sociological Approach to Education* contributes to the group process approach to learning of and dealing with problems in human relations at every level of society.

The book contains a wealth of case materials accumulated through the years as the authors have worked with schools and communities which faced problems of one kind or another in human relations. How these actual problems were met and solved provides rich material for study, discussion, and use of the cooperative principles and procedures which they illustrate.

Teaching aids in the form of supplementary readings, projects, and problems appear at the ends of chapters.

The book is divided into five parts, a listing of which will give the prospective reader a picture of what this excellent book has in store for him. Part I is a discussion of the "Community Viewpoint and Approach." Part II presents "The Community Frame of Life" by detailed analysis of the kinds of community patterns of living, such as those in hamlets, villages, towns, the small city, the larger urban community, and the great metropolis. Part III is concerned with community, child, and school relationships. These are studied in terms of such topics as "School and Community Relations," "Social Class in the School" and "Life-Centered Schooling." Part IV presents "Ways of Working on School Problems." Part V deals with "Improving Teacher Education" in the light of the community approach.

The reviewer has found the book especially useful and challenging in working with upperclassmen and graduate students who are anxious for "practical" as well as theoretical materials.—FLORENCE GREENHOE ROBBINS, *Department of Sociology, The Ohio State University.*

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, by C. L. Shartle. (Second Edition.) New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. 448 pp.

ONE OF THE MOST widely used guidance books during the past decade has been Shartle's first edition of *Occupational Information.* It was a pioneer in an area of guidance for which there was a near vacuum of professional writing. This book is an enlarged and revised edition of the original publication.

The first edition has been read by thousands of guidance workers, but for the few who may not be familiar with the book a brief comment seems desirable.

The first edition is a volume devoted to the technical aspects of occupational information. It discusses techniques of job analysis and methods of occupational classification, contains a fine explanation of the use of the *DOT* and includes a thorough treatment of the relationships which exist among occupations. It is the opinion of the reviewer that this has been an indispensable volume for individuals in direct employment positions or with closely allied jobs but has been of less value to the school guidance worker.

Since the original volume has been so widely used, the reviewer has arbitrarily decided to comment on the changes contained in this revision rather than to analyze the book in its entirety.

This edition has a number of sections which are new to the text. Some of them are completely new or are entire revisions of a section. Notable among these are: *Revised Dictionary of Occupational Titles; 1950 Census Classification of Occupations; Career Ladders in the Armed Services; North-Hatt Scale of Prestige Ratings of Occupations; U. S. Employment Service and Bureau of Labor Statistics Report; New York System for Filing; Occupational Information Materials.* In addition to these changes, a number of minor revisions are to be noted, such as: new illustrations, new sources of information, a completed job

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analysis report, community surveys, and occupational information developments in education. Brief mention is made of visual aids, use of community resources and a few pages are devoted to the follow-up study.

The sections devoted to job classification and to the use of the *DOT* have been altered and improved. Without a doubt, this is the strongest aspect of the book. It is probably the most complete treatment of this phase of occupational information now available in the guidance literature. The contributions of these sections make it easy to recommend this book for the reference shelf of every counselor.

A summary of the changes in this edition would seem to indicate that the author has brought his material up-to-date without adding significantly to the scope of the text. The major additions are supplemental to the emphasis of the first edition, and the best sections of the first book have been strengthened. The table of contents lists a number of new areas which appear to change the emphasis of the revision. Such areas as follow-up, visual aids, abstracts, and community factors are typical topics which are noted but which receive cursory mention in the text. In addition, a large per cent of the increased number of pages is devoted to illustrations which add little to a changed emphasis of content.

In conclusion, it is the reviewer's opinion that if the reader has found the first edition quite satisfactory in scope, then he will be elated with the revision. If, on the other hand, the reader has been looking for a book which covers a wider area of information, then he must continue his search for the appropriate volume.—Dr Raymond N. Hatch, *Head, Department of Guidance and Counselor Training, Michigan State College.*

The Preparation and Training of Pupil Personnel Workers, A Report of the State Committee on Credentials for Pupil Personnel Workers. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, Bulletin XXI-5, April, 1952. 85 pp. Apply.

Despite a multiplicity of 61 established credentials required in the California schools, none are in operation for either school social workers or counselors. The credential for the latter was declared illegal in 1941. This bulletin represents a cooperative approach to the problem under the educational leadership of the state Department of Education and through the use of analytical devices to determine present duties and responsibilities. The conclusions are in some ways unique and deserving of careful study.

The problem was attacked by four subcommittees representing welfare and attendance workers, school social workers, school counselors, and school psychologists and psychometrists. A research committee coordinated the methods of research and summarized the conclusions.

A single credential for all four specialists who serve half time or more in pupil personnel is recommended. Requirements for this credential are stated in terms of teaching experience and of training courses at the undergraduate and graduate levels up to the equivalent of the Masters degree, except for the psychologist for whom two graduate years of training is required.

Despite his gratification over the approach and some aspects of the methods used in this study, this reviewer is less than enthusiastic about some of the conclusions and recommendations. Important as it is to bring practitioners in personnel services into closer cooperative relations, one gets the feeling that the counselor has here been forced into a mold without adequate recognition of his central and unique contributions.

In spite of the conclusion by the subcommittee on counseling that the counselor is a generalist who works primarily with large numbers of normal children who require "a comparatively small amount of service," the research committee characterizes all the specialists as *primarily* responsible for those with difficulties and disturbances. "Problems are referred to the school counselor

primarily because of difficulties arising from relationships within the school, in the field of parent and teacher relationships, in problems of programming, and in vocational guidance," says the research committee.

This, and the placing by implication of the psychologist at the apex of a hierarchy of specialists by requiring of him *only*, two years of graduate training, might have been avoided if more emphasis had been placed on the best utilization of these specialists rather than on the status quo. Moreover, had more than one level of certification been provided, the higher level could be for those in positions of leadership as well as service. Thus the counselor would be recognized as an equal among specialists and, as a generalist best qualified to coordinate and supervise a program for *all* children, would have some opportunity to be considered for the position of leadership.—CLARENCE W. FAILOR, *College of Education, University of Colorado.*

SUCCESSFUL ADJUSTMENT IN COLLEGE, by Chandler, Beamer, Williams, and Armstrong. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. 207 pp.

THE STATED PURPOSE of this workbook-style volume is to assist college freshmen in (1) "assuming the duties and responsibilities of democratic citizenship," and (2) "effecting adjustment to a new type of educational institution." This may be accomplished by using this text in such courses as "orientation," "social adjustment," or "personality development."

On first glance one is impressed by the authors' awareness of the need for a flexible "activity" approach and the rather complete coverage of student problem areas. There are numerous suggestions for group discussions, as well as a variety of forms for individual self-analysis.

There is evidence, too, of a concern for the readability level of the college freshman, as well as for the style that appeals to this group. The content, generally, includes areas of interest to beginning college students, and is divided into seven parts: "Adjusting to College"; "Acquiring the Basic Study Skills"; "Finding Your Place in College Social Life"; "Improving Your Personality"; "Planning for Marriage"; "Mak-

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ing a Wise Vocational Choice"; and "Developing a Sound Philosophy of Life." These are divided into a total of twenty-six units for teaching purposes. Several parts are treated quite realistically; the section on basic study skills is perhaps the most outstanding.

Several weaknesses tend to offset the good features listed. Chief among these is the very limited treatment, for discussion purposes, of some of the issues that reportedly plague freshman students, such as the purpose of general education, suggestions for educational planning, the merits of fraternity (or sorority) membership, proper use of campus resources, and preventive practices in mental health. Because of the large page size, the printing seems (and perhaps is) small, and the line length long, which might make for slow reading. Also, in a few cases, greater use could be made of topic headings or subtitles to break the monotony of a full page of type (p. 28, p. 166), and make for easier student comprehension. One might question the inclusion in the bibliography of periodical references (apparently unselected), for only one part (IV) of the text.

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In spite of these obvious omissions and format limitations, this book could be a welcome tool for both student and instructor where an adaptable guide for class activity and discussion is desired.—HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM, *Director of Guidance Training, Florida State University.*

MORE POWER TO YOUR MIND: *A Guide to More Effective Living,* by G. Milton Smith. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952. 180 pp. $2.50.

IT WOULD SEEM that the title of this small book is somewhat misleading. The subtitle, "A Guide to More Effective Living," more adequately describes its content and scope.

Dr. Smith devotes five short chapters to a discussion of individual needs and the relation between these needs, personality development, and satisfying living. The needs which he considers in detail are those for belonging, for achievement, for self-expression, and for mastery. Two chapters consider the consequences of inadequate satisfaction of these needs. These consequences are frustration, aggression, conflict, anxiety, and indecision. In each case the maladjustive behavior is described, often with case reports, possible courses are considered, and rather specific suggestions for improvement are presented.

The remaining six chapters concern a variety of factors which are vitally related to living effectively. One of the factors which Dr. Smith has chosen to elaborate on in chapter eight is the influence of learning and habit. In this chapter he reviews learning theory with considerable emphasis on Gardner Murphy's channeling or canalization concepts and concludes with what he calls three "new" principles of learning: the principle of common elements, the principle of active participation, and the principle of meaningful learning.

The chapter on satisfaction in work, which would hold much interest for guidance workers, is brief and general. As an antidote for job dissatisfaction a six-step prescription is given. None of the six steps vary greatly from those given in other popular psychologies.

A well-done chapter on sex and the needs of self and one on the family and effective living round out the book.

In general this book presupposes no technical background, but clarifies and integrates the psychological principles with which most readers are acquainted. It would have utility as a supplementary reference for such courses as "psychology of adjustment," or "effective living." Some of the cases described may be useful as illustrating maladjustive mechanisms. Chapters or sections might be read by people who are undergoing counseling as part of counseling procedures and later discussed with the counselor.

The book displays more evidences of scholarship than do most books in popular psychology. An effort is made to document accurately psychological theories, personalities, and data in the supplementary bibliography which contains fifty-nine references. The book is also thoroughly indexed.—LAWRENCE B. BLUM, *Assistant Director, Student Personnel Services, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee Extension Division.*

THE PUBLIC LIBRARIAN, by Alice I. Bryan (with a section on the education of librarians by Robert D. Leigh). New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. 474 pp. $6.00.

THIS STUDY IS an inquiry into the basic issues and problems facing the public library today. More than 3,000 public librarians submitted information which was organized into a clear and critical picture of current library personnel and personnel practice. A representative sampling of 60 communities ranging from large metropolitan centers to small rural villages deals with important problems concerning: the nature of library clientele; the administration and control of libraries; the role of government and institutional organizations in the publication and distribution of reading materials; the publishing trade; the production and distribution of educational film; the shortage of librarians and the training of librarians.

The objectives of the inquiry were accepted as a clarification of the librarian's function: (1) to assemble, preserve, and ad-

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The survey was conducted through visits, questionnaires, and interviews in order to obtain a reasonably representative and accurate picture of librarianship throughout the United States. This critical evaluation of today's librarian, in terms of traditional library practice, and the recommendations for raising the level of the profession may do much to improve standards of service. Educators will approve the vital trend toward a required general education as an important background for the professional training.

The summary and conclusion indicate that there is much to be desired in the present situation in regard to such factors as: the need for the public librarians to become a more clearly defined professional group; the need to lift the general level of salaries to a more adequate scale; the need to raise and enforce the standards requiring a collegiate and professional education in order to occupy a public library position; the need for more adequately organized and supervised personnel in terms of modern, scientific management; the need for an atmosphere of renewed vigor and freshness among the personnel to give self-confidence and aggressive leadership to the profession.

A program for the improvement of public library personnel is proposed to include: the organization of larger units of public library service by consolidation and confederation; a system of state financial aid; a strongly unified organization of professional librarians; a state-administered program of compulsory certification; the classification of all positions in public libraries according to scientific job analysis; and the accrediting by the proper authorities of library schools offering professional training of one year or more in a college program of five years beyond the secondary school. If such a program could be achieved the present inadequacies of public library personnel would gradually disappear.—THELMA CAMPBELL, *Librarian of the Holt Public Schools, Holt, Michigan.*

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LEADERSHIP AND ISOLATION, by Helen Hall Jennings. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1950. 368 pp. $4.00.

AGAIN HELEN HALL JENNINGS has made a contribution to sociometry. Although *Leadership and Isolation* is labeled a second edition, it is more than a revision; it is an expansion. Part Four, devoted to an analysis of choice processes during leisure time, contributes new data.

Although numerous articles and publications have been issued discussing the various phases of the choice process, Helen Jennings and Gardner Murphy both indicate that one thing has been lacking: a systematic analysis of the process going on in the individual that causes him to reach out toward some people and reject others, of how extensively different individuals are in the kind and number of inter-personal relationships they make. The author of this book clearly describes why and how each individual earns his specific position in the sociometric pattern and what degree of stability this position has.

The research for this study was done in the New York Training School for Girls, a closed community comprising more than 400 individuals. The author defends her use of a closed community on the grounds that it allowed better controls for the research she wished to do, and it seemed to her that the individuals as a group did not deviate too radically from the general population.

The subjects were examined at intervals of eight months and were allowed to choose or reject as few or as many persons as they wished on the basis of four criteria: living, working, recreation or leisure, and studying. Samples of instructions used are included in the book. The book itself is divided into four parts: "Problem of Inter-Personal Choice," "Emotional and Social Expansiveness," "Nature of Emotional and Social Expansiveness," and "Sociometric Differentiation of Groups." The author's emphasis on emotional expansiveness, "the extent to which an individual chooses others," and his social expansiveness, "the extent of his social contact range" were extremely interesting and informative.

Summaries of appearances, personality behavior picture, reactions, and statements of sample isolates and leaders give interesting comparative studies of isolates as compared with leaders.

Tables, graphs, new directions, a bibliography, and a glossary add considerably to the publication. While this book is far beyond novices in the field of sociometry, Helen Hall Jennings has made a definite contribution to research in this area. The second edition is well worth reading by those who enjoyed the first edition and by those who are interested in a systematic research study of the fundamental issues of the choice process.—VELMA HAYDEN, *Department of Guidance, New York University.*

THE JUNIOR CITIZEN SERIES, by William Clark Trow, Rosalind M. Zapf, and Harry C. McKown. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951. Approximately $.80 each.

THE SERIES is composed of six booklets. Revision was made of an earlier edition and the second edition was published in August, 1951. The series was designed for use at the Junior High School level. The vocabulary and content seem well adapted to meet the needs of youth in the eighth and ninth grades. The entire series as a unit, or any one of the series separately may serve as basic material for informal group discussions of common problems, or classwork in social living.

Pages in each of the booklets are perforated so that they may be handed in to the teacher for individual appraisal. From the selected problems presented for group or individual discussion, individual pupil problems may be identified which could be more appropriately treated through individual counseling.

The title and a summary statement of purpose for each booklet is presented:

Looking Toward a Vocation attempts to make the junior high school student conscious in a realistic manner of the relationship of his present school experience to the world of work opportunities.

Meeting Difficulties: This booklet aims to help pupils in their social adjustment and development of healthy mental attitudes. The importance of this area of development at the junior high school level is emphasized by competent school administrators throughout the country.

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Recreation and Leisure: Junior high school youth need help in planning satisfying leisure activities. Delinquency is often the method of satisfying needs when direction or planning is not understood. Hobbies may become avocational and provide income needed to supplement the vocational choice.

Getting Acquainted with Your School: From elementary school to high school often constitutes a step in a child's educational experience from which major adjustment problems arise. Pupil orientation should provide a feeling of belonging which produces a satisfactory adjustment in working with the group in "their" school.

Property: The purpose is to clarify and explain the judgments of society in accepted ways of using and handling the property of others. The uses of public and private property in our culture are related to experiences of youth. Honesty and integrity in buying, borrowing, and personal conduct in dealing with others through problems are presented for group discussion.

The uniqueness of these problems for individual and group discussion seems to be

in their selection and presentation in six areas, each represented by a separate booklet which can be used as a series or in individual group projects.

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Publications . . . in brief

School Information Sources for Educational and Vocational Counselors. 8 pp. $.35. *Job Getting Aids.* 4 pp. $.25. Compiled and published by Russell J. Fornwalt, Vocational Counselor, Big Brother Movement, 207 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, New York. (Mimeographed.)

A bibliography of information on American schools and colleges, the *School Information Sources* describes available publications under area and subject headings. *Job Getting Aids* includes a bibliography of employment agency directories, gives descriptive material on various fields of employment, and lists publications on job-finding techniques.

A Standard List of Subject Headings in Industrial Relations. Prepared by the Sub-Committee on Subject Headings, Committee of University Industrial Relations Librarians. Published by Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. (1952.) 95 pp. $2.50.

This compilation of subject headings undertakes to clarify and standardize terminology used in cataloging the rapidly growing amount of material in the field of industrial relations. Work includes explanatory notes for each main heading, a list of suggested subdivisions, suggested cross-references, a list of industries and occupations, and a list of the more important federal labor laws.

Fact Sheet from the Job Department (Glamour). $.05. Copies available from The Condé Nast Publications, Inc., 420 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York.

The four last fact sheets from *Glamour's* Job Department include *Ways to Make Money at Home, Trade and Professional Directories, Commercial Art,* and *Careers on the Campus.* These sheets describe job opportunities in the various fields discussed, along with qualifications and requirements for the positions and probable salaries. The *Trade and Professional Directories* sheet lists directories available in more than 50 different fields of employment.

Development of the Basic Rorschach Score Supplementary Monograph, by Charlotte Buhler, D. Welty Lefever, Frances E. Kallstedt, and Horace M. Peak. 71 pp. $2.50. Copies available from Rorschach Standardization Studies, 1127 North Sweetzer Avenue, Los Angeles 46, California.

The monograph is made up of four separate studies: "Reliability and Validity Analyses of a New Sampling of Rorschach Cases Including Comparisons with Previous Standardization Data," "Adolescent Rorschachs, A Summary of Frances Kallstedt's Standardization Study," "Group Rorschach Studies," and "Abstract of a Pilot Study of the Popular Responses to the Rorschach Ink-Blot Test," plus an appendix, the "Diagnostic Rorschach Sign List."

Occupational Books, an Annotated Bibliography, by Sarah Splaver. Washington: Biblio Press, 1952. 135 pp. $4.00.

Analyzes recommended occupational books (in contrast to occupational pamphlets) published from 1946 to 1951. Career novels as well as non-fiction occupational books appear in this bibliography. Recommended books are listed first by title under job headings, then alphabetically by title in an annotated bibliography, which includes a description of content and indication of presence of illustrations, glossaries and bibliographies. Volume also contains an authors index, a publishers index,

and suggestions for further reading including the names of periodicals which review current occupational literature.

Military Status and Selective Service Classification of June, 1951, College Graduates, Information Bulletin No. 4, issued by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, National Scientific Register, Washington 25, D. C. 25 pp. (Mimeographed.)

This study represents a preliminary examination of data obtained from a subsample of 12,241 male graduates whose questionnaires were first received in the more comprehensive "Survey of June 1951 College Graduates" being conducted at the present time by the National Scientific Register. Reports on present occupational status, selective service classification and military status of the sample studied, and includes breakdowns by areas of college specialization and by type of employment. Brief definitions of Selective Service classifications are included.

Career Reprints from Seventeen, available from Reader Service Department, *Seventeen,* 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York. 16 reprints, $.10 each, offered to guidance organizations and personnel at $.25 for three or $1.25 for the set.

These jobs and career features reprints include *Airline Hostess*—capsule quiz for the potential stewardess; *Art as a Living*—the fascinating field of graphic art; *Career for Hands . . . and Hearts*—occupational therapy; *Careers Behind the Camera*—exploring the photographic field; *College on a Lean Bankbook*—scholarships and loan funds; *Designs for a Job*—behind-the-scenes in fashion designing; *I Want to Work on a Magazine*—what you need besides a "yen"; *It's Time to Plan your Summer*—vacation jobs and/or fun; *Labs and Lasses*—laboratory technology for your scientific mind; *Living on Air*—radio careers for the gifted and courageous; *Medicine Is Hard to Take*—women in medicine: hard work, exciting; *Music as a Career*—can you make your living? *Nurse . . . Someone Needs You*—there are never enough nurses; *Rising in Retailing*—retail store tour; *Take a New Look at Libraries*—special libraries; *What it Takes to be a Model*—glamour job? hard work!

National & International Employment Handbook for Specialized Personnel, by Juvenal L. Angel. World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 28 E. Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Illinois. 102 pp. $3.00. (Mimeographed.)

Offers information and advice on such topics as how to find vacancies, how to prepare a résumé, how to write letters of application, preparation for interviews, where to look for vacancies in official and semiofficial organizations, in nonprofit organizations with national and international connections, and in private industry with possibilities for foreign assignments. Lists employment agencies in leading American cities, directories of government agencies and officials, foreign Chambers of Commerce in the U. S., educational and teaching organizations, social and welfare organizations, and industrial concerns, with emphasis on those employing bilingual personnel.

Looking Ahead to Teaching. Prepared for the Division of Higher Education, New York State Education Department, by the Bureau of Guidance, under the supervision of Bruce E. Shear, Acting Chief of the Bureau. Distribution outside of New York State is limited to one copy for each school system.

This attractive pictorial brochure describes the many advantages of the teaching profession. Includes lively presentation of teacher-training opportunities in the state, using cartoons and many photographs of actual scenes from teacher-training institutions.

Recreation Leadership, by Walter L. Stone, Professor of Sociology, Hanover College, Indiana, and Charles G. Stone, Director of Recreation, Williston, North Dakota. New York: The William-Frederick Press. (1952.) 79 pp. $2.00.

This manual of the skills of leadership in the use of leisure time outlines the authors' views on philosophy, development, and program planning for the training of volunteer and professional recreation leaders.

Careers in Service . . . to the Handicapped. Prepared by the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., 11 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois. (1952.) 53 pp. $.50.

This readable illustrated booklet discusses four fields of work which are devoted primarily to services for handicapped children and adults. These are occupational therapy, physical therapy, special education, and speech and hearing therapy. All are fields in which personnel shortages exist and are likely to exist for years to come, and all are fields for which specialized post-high school training is necessary. The pamphlet includes information on duties performed, need for workers, qualifications and training required, salaries and working conditions, places of employment, and approved training facilities. An additional section is devoted to placement services of various professional organizations.

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RCA Scholarships and Fellowships. Free copies available from Radio Corporation of America, Department of Information, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. 15 pp. (1952.)

This illustrated booklet outlines the objective, history, and present scope of RCA's program to assist undergraduate and graduate students majoring in fields of study related to electronics.

Can I Be an Engineer? Free copies available from the Department of Public Relations, General Motors, Detroit 2, Michigan.

This cleverly illustrated pamphlet, directed to the high school level, explains the importance of engineering in modern society and outlines the various engineering fields, listing typical jobs. In addition, the booklet discusses interests and activities which indicate engineering aptitude and suggests high school subjects which would provide a firm foundation for engineering college.

Employment Outlook in Electronics Manufacturing. Bulletin No. 1072 prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, in cooperation with the Veterans Administration. 30 pp. $.25. Copies available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

This report is one of a series based on studies conducted in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Occupational Outlook Service describing the nation's needs for trained workers in each major industry and occupation under the defense mobilization program. Gives a general description of the electronics industry and a brief explanation of how electronic products are made, outlines different types of electronics workers and discusses working conditions and earnings under such headings as past trends in employment, changes in technology, the impact of defense production, and seasonal and cyclical variations. Briefly covers the outlook in individual occupations in the field and includes advice on how to enter the industry. Contains a bibliography of the occupational publications of BLS.

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Manpower Resources in Physics, 1951; and *Manpower Resources in Chemical Engineering, 1951.* Information Bulletins Nos. 1, 2, and 3, issued by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, National Scientific Register, Washington 25, D. C. (Mimeographed.)

These Bulletins represent a release of data about scientific manpower developed in the course of analysis of materials to be published in final form in the Register's *Scientific Manpower Series.* They contain information on the fields of specialization, age, military status, educational background, fields of employment, functions performed, and professional income of the members of these professions.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials. Compiled and published by Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. (1952.) Fifth Edition. 194 pp. $1.00.

Offers bibliography of educational materials, consisting primarily of pamphlets and posters, on a wide variety of subjects. Lists publications costing, with few exceptions, no more than $.50. Contains subject index and information on source and price.

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms. Fourth Edition. (1952.) Compiled and edited by Mary F. Horkheimer and John W. Diffor. Published by Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. 172 pp. $4.00.

Offers information on free educational and informational slidefilms available from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations. Contains titles of slidefilms, type of slidefilms, whether sound or silent, and annotations including terms and conditions of loans and names and addresses of agencies. Indexed by title, source, subject classification, and subject by topics. The indexes are in color for quick reference.

Your Opportunities in Science. Free copies available from the National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th Street, New York, New York. (1952.) 32 pp.

A description of present-day opportunities in science, this pamphlet is presented in a form designed to be read by high school and college students. Gives short summaries of the qualifications and work of a variety of scientific positions. The occupations described are research director, fundamental research scientist, development scientist, laboratory assistant, technical salesman, production

engineer, technical writer, technical librarian, patent attorney, and teacher.

Something Can Be Done About Chronic Illness, by Herbert Yahraes, The Commission on Chronic Illness. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 176. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. 32 pp. $.25.

Outlining a program for dealing with the problem of chronic disease, this pamphlet emphasizes the need for mass screening techniques for the early detection of chronic illnesses and suggests that some kind of special organization of services for the chronically ill seems to be called for. Explains the work of the Commission on Chronic Illness in its endeavor to modify the prevalent attitude that chronic illness is hopeless, to aid in developing a program designed as far as possible to prevent chronic disease, to minimize its disabling effects and restore its victims to a socially useful and economically productive place in the community.

Preparing Tomorrow's Nurses, by Elizabeth Ogg. The National League for Nursing. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 185. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. 32 pp. $.25.

This pamphlet presents information about nursing service and education today, asks provocative questions about education for both professional and practical nursing, indicates some of the shortcomings in the preparation of the present-day nurse, and suggests what the nursing profession and the public can do together to help correct these shortcomings. It also traces the history of schools of nursing in the United States and describes the enlarging scope and increasing complexity of nursing and the changing patterns of nursing services.

The Fine Artist. In two parts, "Learning," by Anen Carter Ely; and "Earning," by Verna Small. Reprint from *Mademoiselle,* 575 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York. (1952.) 6 pp. $.10.

This illustrated leaflet discusses the opportunities for studying painting and sculpture and describes the growth of possibilities for learning art techniques in liberal arts colleges. Presents the earning experiences of a number of young artists and outlines sources of income using art skills, including scene designing and painting, industrial designing, commercial art and teaching.

How to Be a Fashion Model, by Donna Louise Hoffer. Published by the author. Copies available from P.O. Box 709, Hollywood, California. 60 pp. $2.50.

Tips on personal appearance applicable to all women are combined with practical suggestions to those interested in becoming professional models in this illustrated volume.

This Is Vocational Education . . . In the Chicago Public Schools. Published by the Board of Education of the City of Chicago with a foreword by Hobart H. Sommers, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Vocational Education. 43 pp. No price listed.

Outlines in text and illustrations how a broad program of practical and related activities can be developed without discounting the values of general education. Proposes that vocational education should prepare young people to earn a living and to live full lives as well-rounded citizens, and shows how the youth of Chicago may prepare for the vocations or trades, for industry or business, or for specialized college programs. This brochure also attempts to answer such questions as: What is the difference between a general high school and a vocational high school? Wherein do the offerings differ in the vocational and the technical high schools? What is a continuation school? What is the relationship of a trade school to management and labor?

Linda Kent, Student Nurse, by Dorothy Deming, R.N. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1952. 274 pp. $2.50.

As a high school student, Linda Kent wondered whether she should become a professional nurse. How she tested her interest in nursing by aide service in her home town hospital, then went on to a collegiate school of nursing, with its joys and sorrows, its fun and friendships, and its serious challenges, is the story told in this volume.

Merry Christmas

a statement of policy . . .

THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, *successor to Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Journal,* is a professional periodical designed to meet the needs of the members of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and others interested in the field.

It seeks to help personnel and guidance workers in education, vocational guidance agencies, industry, business, government, social agencies, and service organizations to do their work better.

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL attempts to:

1. Represent both the unity and breadth of the personnel and guidance movement.
2. Examine, report, and foster good personnel and guidance practices in the entire field.
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4. Keep its readers informed about major trends in the training and professional growth of personnel and guidance workers.
5. Report selected research studies in the field, particularly those which give promise of practical application.
6. Present news about people and events in the field.
7. Describe materials in other journals, books, and audio-visual media pertinent to the field.
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(Consisting of the following divisions: American College Personnel Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, and the Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education)

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